DOCUMENT RESUME

366

on, Harry H., Ed.
y Cooperation and Asian Development.
dation, New York, N.Y.
67
op.; Proceedings of a Conference of University Heads organized by The Asia Foundation,
ty of Hong Kong, December 18-21, 1966
ce MF-$1.00 HC-$10.40
ors-Curriculum Development, *Developmental Programs, Economic Development,
ation, *Higher Education, *Institutional Role, Interinstitutional Cooperation, *Internationa
, *Regional Cooperation, Regional Planning, Regional Programs
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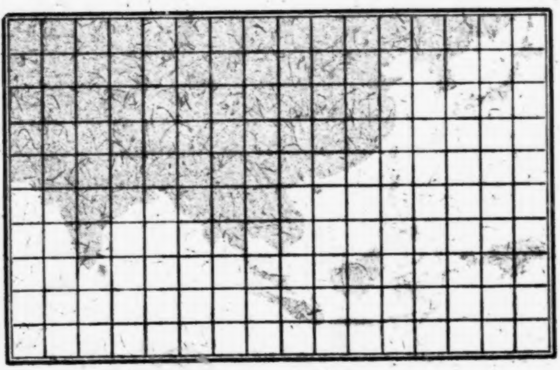
deal, both generally and specifically, with patterns and aspects of
ation in relation to Asian development. (JS)

UNIVERSITY COOPERATION AND ASIAN DEVELOPMENT



Proceedings of a Conference Sponsored By
The Asia Foundation

Held at the University of Hong Kong
December 1966

UNIVERSITY COOPERATION AND ASIAN DEVELOPMENT

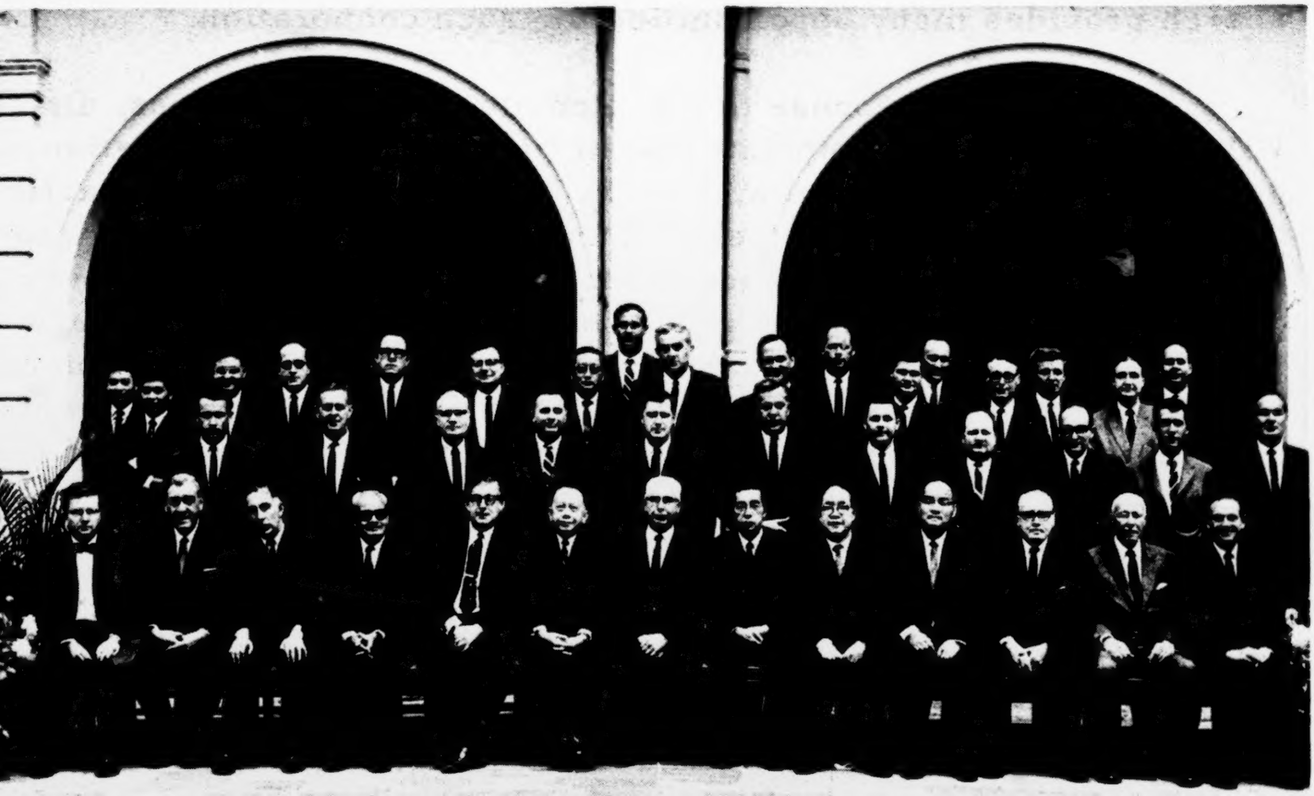
Proceedings of a Conference of University Heads
Organized by The Asia Foundation and Held at the
University of Hong Kong, December 18-21, 1966

lited by Harry H. Pierson

FOREWORD

The Conference on University Cooperation and Asian evelopment, held at the University of Hong Kong from December 18 21, 1966, on the invitation of The Asia Foundation, brought together stinguished educators and leaders in civic affairs from Asia, ustralia, and the United States with field representatives and senior ecutives of The Asia Foundation. The discussions were enhanced the participation of a representative of The Rockefeller Foundation d the Permanent Representative of the United States to UNESCO.

The Asia Foundation had two objectives in calling the nference: first, to explore the contribution universities can make Asian society and development and identify new opportunities for egional and international educational cooperation; and, second, to in deeper insights into Asian needs and thus to assure that its programming is addressed as effectively as possible to those needs. oth these objectives were realized.



OREWORD

The texts of the two principal addresses, the nine papers
livered by guest participants, the statements of the Foundation panel,
d the rapporteurs' summaries of the discussions make up this volum
proceedings. Hopefully they will stimulate further thought and actio
regard to university cooperation in Asia. The rapidly increasing
mplexity of international communication and the quickening pace ap-
rent in the removal of barriers impeding such cooperation in Asia
flect the growing awareness of the vital role the universities are
lled upon to play. This awareness is felt by university leaders,
culty members, and students, as well as by officers and staff mem-
rs of organizations that are called upon to provide financial assist-
ce to innovation in this field.

Development is more and more seen to have few, if any,
sciplinary limits. It must also rely in many cases on the experience
other countries for example and counsel. As the molders of the
tellectual leadership, the preservers of traditional values, and the
tual or potential source of innovating ideas, the universities in Asia
e increasingly seeking ways and means of keeping up with the flow
new ideas and exercising their role of leadership in promoting re-
onal cooperation. The conference clearly demonstrated that this
earch provides many opportunities for such cooperation. *

In his response to Dr. Romulo's closing address, Dr. Hay
illiams extended appropriate thanks on behalf of the Foundation to th
uests from Asia, Australia, and the United States for their participat
d for the high quality of their contributions. I should like to reemph
ze here our gratitude to Vice-Chancellor Robinson of the University
Hong Kong for graciously providing the venue of the conference.
articular thanks are due to the chairmen who without exception handl
eir respective sessions skillfully; to the rapporteurs who recorded t
ghlights of the discussions; to the conference staff who shared the pl
ng and execution of the many complicated details inherent in the orga
ation of an international meeting, and to the staff of the Hong Kong
ffice of The Asia Foundation which is periodically called upon to

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The highlights of the discussions and some comments on the organiza
f the conference can be found in the Foundation's Program Quarterl

rifice time and space to the needs of our meetings. As Conference
ector, I consider it a rare privilege to have been asked to assume
ponsibility for the organization of the conference and thus to have
the opportunity of working with the outstanding group of men who
icipated.

Harry H. Pierson
Conference Director

PROGRAM

Conference on

University Cooperation and Asian Development

y, December 18, 1966

:00 p. m. ong Kong Room ilton Hotel	OPENING DINNER Presiding: Russell G. Smith, Chairman, Board of Trustees, The Asia Foundation Greetings: H. E. Sir David Trench, K. C. M. G., M. C., Governor of Hong Kong Address: "Personal Observations on International University Cooperation for Asian Development" --Haydn Williams, President, The Asia Foundation

ay, December 19, 1966

enate Room, niversity of ong Kong	FIRST SESSION, 9:00 a. m. - 12:00 noon Chairman: Richard G. Heggie, Representative, India Rapporteurs: Lindley B. Sloan, Representative, Afghanistan; William J. Klausner, Acting Representative, Thailand
:00 - 9:10 a. m.	Introduction and Announcements

GRAM

day)

	Discussion
0:25 a.m.	Coffee break
0:45 - 12:00 noon	Paper: "University Development: National Needs and International Cooperation" --V.K.R.V. Rao, Member, Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi; Founder, Delhi School of Economics; former Vice Chancellor, University of Delhi.(Dr. Rao was unable to attend the Conference due to unforeseen circumstances, and Dr. Romulo graciously agreed to speak extemporaneously on the subject: "University Development: Regional Needs and International Cooperation," as recorded on page 32.)
	Discussion
2:30 p.m. he Lodge (The Vice hancellor's residence)	LUNCHEON Vice Chancellor Robinson, host
	SECOND SESSION, 2:00 - 5:00 p.m.
enate Room	Chairman, Gaston J. Sigur, Representative, Japan
	Rapporteurs: James H. Noyes, Representative, Ceylon; Louis Connick, Representative, Laos
:00 - 3:15 p.m.	Paper: "The Potential Contribution of Universities to Economic Growth in Asia" --Kazuo Ōkōchi, President

GRAM

ay)

	Tea break
:30 - 5:00 p.m.	Paper: "The Experience of American Universities in International Cooperation" --Grayson L. Kirk, President, Columbia University
	Discussion
VENING FREE	
ay, December 20, 1966	
enate Room	THIRD SESSION, 9:00 a.m. - 12:00 noon
	Chairman: Lyman Hoover, Representative, Republic of China
	Rapporteurs: Douglas P. Murray, Representative, Singapore; James H. Noyes, Representative, Ceylon
:00 a.m.	Announcements
:10 - 10:25 a.m.	Paper: "The Role of Universities in Legal Development in Asia" --Zelman Cowen, Dean, Faculty of Law, University of Melbourne, Australia; Vice-Chancellor-designate, New England University
	Discussion
0:25 a.m.	Coffee break
0:45 a.m.	Paper: "New Patterns of Inter-University Cooperation in the Natural and Physical Sciences"

GRAM

sday)

	Discussion
2:00 noon	CONFERENCE PHOTOGRAPH
2:30 p.m. Student Union	LUNCH--All participants
Senate Room	FOURTH SESSION, 2:00 - 4:45 p.m. Chairman: Leonard C. Overton, Representative, Vietnam Rapporteurs: Douglas P. Murray, Representative, Singapore; Louis Connick, Representative, Laos
2:00 - 3:15 p.m.	Paper: "The Humanities in Asian Universities" --Ishtiaq Husain Qureshi, Vice-Chancellor, University of Karachi Discussion
3:15 p.m.	Tea break
3:30 - 4:45 p.m.	Paper: "The Role of the University in Research and Public Service" --Charles J. Hitch, Vice President fo Administration, University of California Discussion
7:30 p.m. Penthouse, Hang Seng Bank Building, Hong Kong	DINNER Vice-Chancellor Li Choh-ming, host

PROGRAM

Wednesday, December 21, 1966

Senate Room	FIFTH SESSION, 9:00 - 12:00 noon
	Chairman: William L. Eilers, Representative, Malaysia
	Rapporteurs: William J. Klausner, Acting Representative, Thailand; Stephen Uhalley, Program Specialist Republic of China Office of The Asia Foundation
9:00 a.m.	Announcements
9:10 - 10:25 a.m.	Paper: "Inter-University Cooperatio in Area Programs and the Social Sciences: Asian Problems and Prosp --Li Choh-ming, Vice-Chancellor, The Chinese University of Hong K
	Discussion
10:25 a.m.	Coffee break
10:45 - 12:00 noon	Panel Discussion: "Opportunities fo Inter-University Cooperation, as se by Asia Foundation Representatives' William L. Eilers, Representativ Malaysia, Chairman David I. Steinberg, Representativ Korea; James H. Noyes, Represe Ceylon; Douglas P. Murray, Representative, Singapore
	Discussion
12:00 noon	Adjournment of the regular sessions
1:00 - 3:30 p.m. Mandarin Hotel	LUNCHEON for university president and vice chancellors

(Wednesday)

After luncheon Dr. Sterling will lead an off-the-record discussio on international university co-operation as seen by a universit administrator.

12:30 - 2:30 p.m.
Student Union

LUNCHEON--Other guest participan and The Asia Foundation staff

Mr. Smith, host

A short discussion period will follow.

CLOSING DINNER

8:00 p.m.
Peninsula Hotel

Presiding: Russell G. Smith, Chai
Board of Trustees, The Asia Founda

Introduction of Speaker--Raymond V
Johnson, Representative, the Philip

Address: "The Future of Asian Uni
--The Honorable Carlos P. Romulo
Secretary of Education, Republic
the Philippines; concurrently Pre
University of the Philippines

Response: Haydn Williams
President, The Asia Foundation

Closing of the Conference
--Mr. Smith

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Charles J. Hitch . . . .

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Choh-Ming Li . . . .

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Opportunities for Inter-University Cooperation, as Seen by Asia Foundation Representatives
Panel of Representatives: William L. Eilers, Chairman; David I. Steinberg; James H. Noyes; Douglas P. Murray . . . .

Luncheon Meeting for University Heads

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J. E. Wallace Sterling . . . .

Closing Address

The Future of Asian Universities
Carlos P. Romulo . . . .

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OPENING ADDRESS

PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS ON UNIVERSITY COOPERATION AND ASIAN DEVELOPMENT

HAYDN WILLIAMS
PRESIDENT

THE ASIA FOUNDATION

ENING ADDRESS

Your Excellency, Mr. Smith, Distinguished Guests, Ladies Gentlemen:

Hong Kong has become a traditional gathering place for the undation. Since 1954, senior staff members and Trustees from San ancisco and New York, and Representatives from Afghanistan in the thwest, to Japan in the northeast, have met annually in Hong Kong discuss Foundation affairs and how a small private American organi- ion can make a more meaningful contribution to social, cultural, and cational advancement in Asia. The Foundation appreciates the many rtesies and warm hospitality which we have always been extended also the privilege of meeting annually in this extraordinary and ex- ng center of human activity, endeavor, and achievement.

This occasion marks the opening of our conference on iversity Cooperation and Asian Development." Again I think it ropriate that we are meeting here, for Hong Kong is the home of old university which has over the years been contributing to the markable growth of Hong Kong. It is also the home of a new univer- , just born. These two institutions, Hong Kong University and The nese University are representative of a heightened interest in higher cation throughout Asia and both, because of the vitality of their lead- hip, hold promise of even greater service to this community and to rnational scholarship in the years ahead.

I wish to welcome also our many distinguished guests. The sidents and Vice-Chancellors of some of Asia's most preeminent versities are with us tonight. We are honored by their presence. ink we are also fortunate to have with us Dr. Kenneth Thompson, Vice President of one of my country's noblest institutions, The kefeller Foundation. I had hoped also to welcome my old friend, Robert Wade, U. S. representative to UNESCO, who has been de- ed by bad weather. Finally, I would like to acknowledge the presence ix members of our Board of Trustees, who have travelled to Hong g to be with us. They are representative of the strength and depth ur Trustees' interest and involvement in the work of the Foundation, they reflect the broad character of the Board's composition--banker lishers, community and cultural leaders, and ranking university cials and scholars. Three great American universities are repre- ted here by our Trustees: President Kirk of Columbia University, sident Sterling of Stanford University, and Vice President Hitch of

PENING ADDRESS

The conference program states that I am to make an address
"Personal Observations on University Cooperation and Asian Devel-
ment." I approach this task with great humility as I stand before
s distinguished group of educators--ministers, generals, deans and
odes scholars. In fact, it is with a certain amount of trepidation tha
lare even to embark on such a subject before this august audience. I
tend to limit my remarks to a few fundamentals known to you all but
orth, in my judgment, repeating and emphasis. I hope that in the pro
ss I will not be testing your patience.

First, foundations, unlike universities, whose origins and
aditions date back to ancient and medieval days, are a relatively
odern invention. Generally, foundations see as their role the dis-
very and activating of ideas and endeavors in fields and in ways not
ailable to less flexible public and private institutions. With their
sources foundations can provide the extra margin which makes inno-
ation and experimentation possible. They can provide a stimulus and
energizers of constructive activity, but the inspiration, the provisi
human resources, and the translation of ideas and programs into
tion are beyond the realm and competence of foundations. And so
undations have traditionally looked to universities to supply the lead-
rship and the vital intellectual ingredient necessary for the advance-
ent of society and the human condition. In the process, foundations
ave learned and are learning how their own resources might better be
ilized in supplementing the tasks of higher education and research.

In our forthcoming meeting our chief discussions are going
cus on how inter-university cooperation at the international level ca
etter contribute to Asian national and regional development. By deve
pment I am not speaking only of economic advancement which raises
aterial standards of life but rather of development in its broadest
ense--the full release of the human potential in social, cultural, edu
ational, political and intellectual fields--for it is becoming increasi
vident that programs in non-economic fields are decisive and determ
ant regulators of economic growth.

Our concern with development, therefore, encompasses the
fforts of Asian countries to adapt their social institutions to the exi-
encies of modernization--to apply their physical and human resource
enriching the total lives of their peoples and sharing with each othe

cial contribution to make these pressing developmental tasks--and rticular that their concerted efforts, transcending national bounda- will be important elements in shaping the future of Asian society story.

In Asia, progress in the development of higher education World War II has been remarkable. In concept, and practice, universities have largely abandoned their earlier and limited rimary concern with the perpetuation of an established elite and ow enlisted and engaged in the cause of raising the educational of a broader spectrum of the population and in serving a fuller of needs essential to national growth and well being. The closer oration between national planning and the academic community in Asian countries is testimony to a growing understanding of the al relationships between education and material progress.

Accompanying this realization has been an increasing concern e quality and pertinence of university education--not just in rela- national manpower projections and resource allocation, but in ct to the responsibility that falls on the university for instilling values and nurturing the search for an allegiance to truth and orming raw knowledge into wisdom.

Historically, the university has had a pivotal role in society-- er we speak of the medieval universities of Europe or the great rs of learning in Asia which predate the emergence of Western ations of higher learning by a thousand years or more. Essentially, iversity has been a repository of accumulated knowledge and has e sacred trust of preserving and transmitting this knowledge to eding generations. However, as the structure and values and needs iety have shifted so have universities. At times, some of these ations have lagged in adapting to changing requirements; while have been in the vanguard, have discerned societal needs, and exercised vital leadership in inducing change of broad benefit to untries which they serve.

Traditionally, from ancient times to the present, the geo- cal horizon of the University has extended beyond national and al boundaries, as witnessed by the long pilgrimages of scholars udents to early Asian centers of higher learning and the inter- al migrations of guilds of masters and students of medieval venation of the traditional international character of the university. the monks and priests of old, the contemporary scholar--scientist, hologist, and humanist--is pursuing knowledge wherever it is found, sregard of national frontiers. As a result we are witnessing today nprecedented knowledge explosion on a universal scale. No univer- can now be self-contained or sufficient. Nor can the university em of a single country perform its role in national isolation. The ern university's performance must be enriched by international eration. If a university is denied this advantage or if it remains f from the international commerce of scholars and students, of arch findings, publications, and new ideas, it suffers and cannot ake of and in turn contribute to the growing aggregate of human ning and opportunity.

The evolution of the American university is a case in point. elled initially on the British counterpart, it achieved its own integrit functionality only by adapting to its own uses the ideas, methods, and riences borrowed from other lands. It mixed these assets with in- nous American ideas, needs, resources and experiences and created modern American university. Thus, since our early colonial history own institutions of higher learning have benefitted from international acts, from the travel of our own educators and scholars abroad, and n the flow of ideas and knowledge into our universities from sister tutions around the world.

Interchange with Asian universities, which has received such etus in the last twenty years as our own horizons of learning have ened, has enriched American universities in many tangible and in- ible ways. Asian scholars have brought to the American campus a ater understanding and appreciation of Asian history, culture, and lization. The flow of American students to Asian universities and tudents from Asian countries to colleges and universities in the ed States has added greatly to the diversity, vitality, and interest merican academic life. Certainly contact with Asian universities added an extra and rich dimension to our knowledge and to the ity of our teaching and research.

Unfortunately, similar exchanges among Asian universities nselves have been on a lesser scale. Asian nations can no longer rd to neglect the need to know more about each other. In this regard increasing attention being given by Asian universities to the develop-

It is our hope that American universities will continue to rate with Asian universities and the latter with each other, to essential relationships and the sharing of knowledge more nearly ocal. Universities should strive to be more of an intersection sed equally by other scholars and students, and less of a one-way from either Asia to America or Europe--or vice versa. Regional between Asian institutions may in fact now be of even more im- ce to the development of Asia than the more traditional pattern hanges between Eastern and Western institutions.

One thing is certain. You cannot crate up, as Professor son of Princeton has said, the educational system of one country ip it out to another as a package to be uncrated and put to use as or Asian universities to take as a model the university system d in other parts of the world would be to neglect their own histor- ots, their present circumstances, and their projected future-- ch I am sure is not their intent. Asian universities, like others er parts of the world, must find their own balance--borrowing, ng, and giving as they meet the requirements of the rapidly ing world in which we live.

In meeting the national and regional needs for development, rsities everywhere must be a part of the society and responsive nmunity and public needs. At the same time universities must aside in one sense: so that they can, in a climate of objectivity cademic freedom, observe, perceive, and articulate trends and so as to minister better to the human condition as they see and ret it. Cooperation with universities elsewhere can be a means s end, but importing solutions reached elsewhere is not a viable sirable recourse. Asian institutions themselves best know their tions and the needs of their society and they seek and should seek own solutions.

In this never-ending effort Asian nations can help one another gh intra-Asian cooperation and collaboration at the university level. Asian countries can help and in the process can better understand selves and their own problems. Men and nations everywhere are confronted with challenges of increasing proportions as the tension ng from the congested, dynamic, and growing impersonal character odern society mounts with each passing year. Asia and the world

In closing, I would like to quote a statement of Dr. Charles kel, a former Columbia University professor and administrator ow Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural rs. For me this statement well describes the spirit of this erence.

> "... The pursuit of truth, the sharing of cultural achievements, and the effort to bring together knowledge, collective experience, and imagination of mankind to improve the human condition are all enterprises that transcend the particular purposes of particular nations. Free trade in the arts and sciences... and the free association of individuals with one another as individuals, and not as members of different nations, are supreme achievements..."*

---

e Neglected Aspect of Foreign Affairs," by Charles Frankel.

FIRST SESSION

December 19, morning

rman: Richard G. Heggie, Representative, India

orteurs: Lindley S. Sloan, Representative, Afghanistan
William J. Klausner, Acting Representative, Thailand

rs by: Kenneth E. Robinson, Vice-Chancellor, University of Hong Kong

Universities and Development: Some Problems

Carlos P. Romulo, President, University of the Philippines

University Development: Regional Needs and International Cooperation

DR. ROMULO
MR. HEGGIE
MR. RC
DR KI

UNIVERSITIES AND DEVELOPMENT: SOME PROBLEMS

Kenneth E. Robinson

That our discussions should begin with a paper by a very and inexperienced head of a small university is the incidental result a graceful tribute to the elder of the two universities in Hong Kong. is a more serious deficiency than my limited experience as the head University is that my acquaintance with Asia does not extend beyond fifteen months since I took up my present post, and however much H Kong may share many of the problems that confront us all, it does s a context which is, in several major respects, unique. In this pape attempt to draw from the two concepts with which it is concerned so implications, prompted in part by reflection on my own experience o them in other contexts.

I

We constantly speak of economic, social, political, and- although with somewhat less assurance--cultural development, but i is not easy to be clear what we mean. One reason for this is perhap that development--at least in its historical usage in English--refers once to a process and the end result of that process. When Marx wr "The country which is more developed industrially only shows to the less developed, the image of its own future"(1) he was claiming that process of development in society was one of which the end result wa as unambiguously determined as the development of an embryo can b predicted as the fully grown species. "The economic law of motion modern society" having been laid bare, it followed that a society cou not "clear by bold leaps, nor remove by legal enactments, the obsta offered by the successive phases of its modern development." But although the end and the process were thus determined, a society could, Marx claimed, "shorten and lessen the birth pangs."

These two issues--the relation of the process to its end, the extent to which knowledge can shorten or lessen the pains in the cess--are at the root of much subsequent discussion. Development, at least some aspects of it, notably economic growth, is nowadays a clared aim of policy everywhere though it is seen as a contrived rath than an organic process. What is sought might, in the most general sense, be described as a "fuller working out" of the condition of me in society, of their capacity to realize their own potentialities. Stu of society may thus see development in terms of process, as an inc ing differentiation of roles, an increasing rationality in their alloca to individuals, and an increasing complexity in their articulation in maintenance of the social fabric. Ordinary people, it would seem, development rather in terms of the end to be achieved, some glimp of the greater possibilities of satisfaction which are open either to selves or others in their own society or to men and women of other societies. (I say "some glimpse" because we have remarkably litt systematic knowledge of how these greater possibilities of satisfact are actually perceived by members of different groups in developin countries, and still less of how the process of development is perce Such enquiries demand a sophisticated understanding of the cultures those countries as well as studies in depth.)

It is an open question how far the process of development entails the equitable morality implied in "a fuller working out" of m capacity to realize their own potentialities, a progressive enlargem of opportunities to realize those potentialities available to increasi bers of men. Some of those who have reflected on this problem, g concerned to find a validation for values they perceived as central their own society and, philosophically speaking, pragmatists, seem me to have affirmed that such an equitable extension of opportunity least a long run implication of development.(2) There are two qual tions of such a thesis which are of immediate practical importance. first is that it is not contended that what I have called an "equitable ity" is either an essential condition or a necessary consequence of opment at any stage but rather that it may be an increasing consequ of relatively late stages and then indeed become a condition of furth velopment. The second is that even at relatively late stages of the process it is at least temporarily possible for rulers to decide not proceed still further with development if it calls for changes, whet economic, social, political, or cultural, which are considered una able. Such slowing down, or even halting, may indeed be more lik the further development has already proceeded: richer countries, richer men, may think themselves able to exercise choice to a gre extent than poorer ones. Whether in a longer perspective such hal can be other than temporary may be doubted in view of the increasi pressure of "demonstration effects" in a world in which communica in all its aspects is so rapidly increasing. But in the more immedi perspective in which we live, such temporary halts may still be qui lengthy and the obstacles, natural or contrived, to communication, say nothing of the coercive powers which, in favourable conditions, rulers may be able to exert, may still be underestimated.

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(2) See for example the discussion in D. Apter: The Politics of

Quite apart from the obstacles to the development proces which may arise in any particular country from its different implica for different individuals, classes, or regions, the composition of th index of what is deemed desirable (an increase in the magnitude of v is one way of approaching the definition of development) must vary greatly in countries whose circumstances differ so considerably as must the extent of consensus about the nature of the process by whic development is to be achieved. And at least in the present state of understanding the ambiguity in the end result is not due merely to la of clear thinking, of understanding what the implications of a state o "advanced" development may be, or even to the differential effects may be expected to have on the relative status and wealth of differen individuals or regions but to the major choices which it seems to le open.(3) In all countries (including, of course, some of the most de oped) there is a considerable variety of disagreement and conflict a the practical implications of development, although some of the gro involved may be more articulate or more powerful than others. In t countries this state of affairs seems likely to persist for a long tim come.

A political system designed to promote conciliation, or a least ensure a containment of conflicts (both continuing processes), subject to some measure of instability when confronted with demand which call for large changes rather than marginal adjustments. Th most obvious problem of "liberal" or "representative" systems is t ecause in a sense they take the existing pattern of interests as given nd seek means of agreement on adjustments rather than transformati f existing positions, they may at best seem slow in grappling with the roblems of development and at worst produce an "immobilisme" they re powerless to resolve. Apart from the personalities of leaders or ancied or real foreign pressures, this is what accounts for authorita an attempts to resolve such conflicts and to substitute for the value hich classical liberalism attaches to their peaceful resolution in the olitical process, values derived from development considered as an nd (in a variety of definitions). Such authoritarian systems seek to cquire legitimacy not by what they do now (often justified rather by s mmediate "crisis") but by what they will in consequence achieve in th uture. The most obvious problems with which such authoritarian sys ems are confronted is that either they may fail to produce the promis cceleration of development or, if they do, they may prove unable to ntegrate into the system enough of those who emerge to fulfil the new oles required by development to avoid the problem of a new revolutio

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(3)I have in mind not only that "greater equality" or "democracy" ar values which we may in principle decide to choose, even at the ex of maximising economic growth, but that it is (to say the least) a question whether these values can, even in highly developed socie be shewn to be instrumental either to the maintenance of the exis level of development or to the possibility of further development. if it could be shewn that they were, it would not it seems to me, date them in the way some writers imply unless greater value is

Preoccupied with identifying the political relevance of almo very aspect of development or modernisation, the most influential ontemporary students of politics correctly point to their destabilising ropensities, explain political instability, and justify the emergence o ifferent types of authoritarian political systems. Some indeed conve he impression that "their own underlying commitment to progress is verwhelming as to exclude political decay as a possible concept."(4) thers argue that in some countries, some features of modernisation otably literacy and the influx into cities, have already gone so far in dvance of other aspects that there is no possibility of containing thei onsequences: the demands for development which accompany them m e far beyond anything the society is capable of delivering in the fore- eeable future.(5) But their work largely neglects political institution sation, perhaps because the evidence suggests that this is a relativel ong term process. One of their favourite concepts is "mobilisation" nless, however, there were pre-existing armies of which the mobili ere already part-time members, or whose cadres were designed to bsorb and organise them, the results of "mobilisation" would not be xistence of greatly enlarged forces ready for battle but chaos.

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4)S. P. Huntingdon, "Political Development and Political Decay." World Politics, Vol. 17 (1964-65), p. 392. This is a most suggest discussion of some of these topics.

It cannot be assumed that such structures can be improvised a moment, or that if they are successfully improvised they can stanc e strain of integrating still further waves of the newly mobilised. Th untries which, in a period of development, shew the greatest politica ability are, it is suggested, those in which political organisation has en most effectively institutionalised. Modernising pressures may be ntained by traditional political institutions (which in the process were emselves gradually transformed) as in Britain when it was the first odern "developing country." Elsewhere modernising pressures may t have been so great as to destroy the capacity to contain them of odern political structures institutionalised in a long period of nationa t development within a colonial system. Unfortunately, the opportun y for an "incubation" of modern political structures was missed in ost colonial societies: this, as well as the pressures of development a fundamental cause of much existing political instability. In the st independence period some countries may fortunately have achievec me degree of equilibrium between continued development and continu rengthening of the political institutions; in others any such equilibriu ay be threatened by the relatively low rate of development achieved d the demonstration effects of increases in communication, or more astically the relentless pressure of population increases which wipe t the effects of even a comparatively high rate of development. Addi the pressures by attempting too great an acceleration of developmen ay destroy the possibility of political stability.

Quite apart from the familiar variety of specific conditions, c loping countries confront us with very different stages in the process velopment, differences in the conception of "development" as the enc sult of the process, and a varying, but in most cases high, degree of litical instability. Although not totally unfounded, the crude model o passionate consensus about development and some, in principle, easi mediable confusion or disagreement about the means to achieve it, w ossly misleading. As this has become more widely realised by ordi ople in those countries which are substantially involved in problems aid, there has been a considerable increase in popular scepticism out the case for aid as well as its efficacy. The level of internationa d may not actually have fallen but for the last five years its rate of owth has flattened out. That a still greater deterioration has not curred is in some measure due to the influence of devoted men in

d cultural, as well as economic, involved in the attempt to transforn
e conditions which entail it. They well understand what one of them
s called "the weight of the tragic burden borne by the political leade
the poor countries,"(6) a burden shared by many leading citizens of
ose countries. The task of increasing understanding of these issues
the aid giving countries is one of great and increasing urgency. Thi
s important implications in relation to cooperation between universi-
es in advanced and developing countries.

I have refrained from enlarging on some of the more specifi
d difficult choices that the process of development must continually
se, most agonisingly in its earlier stages: choices between consump-
on and investment, between public and private consumption, between
e reduction of regional inequalities and the concentration of resource
here returns are likely to be highest, between the improvement of
riculture and the development of industry, between investment in
cial and more directly economic infrastructure, between the provi-
on of education at different levels, between defence and not opulence
t a little less poverty. We are only too painfully aware of them and
any event not much to the point can be said except in relation to
ecific contexts in particular countries, with, it cannot be too strongl
nphasised, a detailed awareness of political and social conditions as
ell as an acquaintance with increasingly specialised branches of
onomics. I have been concerned, perhaps unnecessarily, to empha-
se that the process of development, of its nature, poses such choices
ntinually in all the aspects of society and that it will be a long time
fore the levels of development attained are sufficient to make such
oices much less stark or the penalties of failure to make the appro-
iate ones less severe. But most of all I have tried to suggest how
ucial for development are the political organisations and structures
d how intractable are the problems which their adaptation and increa
g modernisation present in many developing countries. Failure to
lve these problems in a way consistent with ongoing development may
ean not only that such development will run into the sand but also that
e maintenance of even its existing level, especially in those countries
hich have a relatively developed modern sector, may become impossi
e. This does not mean that these problems will be solved: it does
ean that it cannot safely be assumed that concentration on economic
velopment, in its widest connotation, is, always and everywhere, the
ghest priority.

II

A society confronted with such hazards is likely to be an
mfortable, though perhaps stimulating, environment for universi-
This is not merely because, along with all other institutions and
iduals, they share those hazards, but because they are likely to
ceptionally vulnerable to many of them and, on the other hand, the
essful conduct of their activities requires that they maintain a
sure of inviolability.

Universities are exceptionally vulnerable to some of the
sures of development for three reasons. First is the fact that they
o a substantial, though varying, extent derived from foreign models.
ough, most notably in the major cultural traditions of Asia, great
res of scholarship and teaching long preceded the earliest of the
ersities of mediaeval Europe while others were their contempora-
7), modern universities in these countries were often established
e colonial period on the model of universities in the colonial rulers'
tries, while even in countries which were always independent and
e universities were established by the national government, foreign
els or foreign advisers were used in their design. Even universi-
established in the immediate post-independence period in formerly
nial countries, and more evidently representing, in some of their
acteristics, a response to the environment in which they have de-
ped, reproduced many of the features of the educational system with
h they were familiar. Thus, Silcock reported in 1960:

> "One feels a lack of innovation in Indonesian universities because, despite all this expansion, curricula, forms of organisation, and methods of teaching still largely follow the former Dutch pattern except in departments directly under American influence and with American staff."(8)

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am thinking, for example, of the Hindu centres of learning in
assical times, the mediaeval universities of the Islamic world,
the Imperial Academy in China.

. H. Silcock, South East Asian University (Durham, N.C., 1964),
54. A similar picture emerges from B. Glassburner, "High

least one well known case the transplanted foreign model long out- d its exemplar. Nearly a hundred years after the foundation of the ersities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, the Indian Universities mission, writing of them and later universities established after same pattern, was moved to remark:

> "It was in our opinion a very unfortunate incident or accident that India should have adopted this type from the model of London University just before London University itself abandoned the type. Most Indian Universities have long ceased to belong to the affiliating type though some, including the oldest, have not moved nearly far enough in the opposite direction."(9)

Commenting on the same point, the Education Commission, rting this year, said it could "do no better" than to quote some arks of Sir Eric Ashby:

> "Looking at Indian Universities a century after their foundation, one cannot but feel that they have failed to adapt themselves sufficiently to the vast and unique opportunities which surround them; they seem to have lost enthusiasm and initiative under the crushing burdens which have beset them. Despite three major commissions, they have not been able to extricate themselves from their own brief history. With a few notable exceptions, they remain examining bodies and their students naturally regard success in examinations as the sole end of an undergraduate career. As universities multiply in number, their academic standards--relative to those elsewhere--do not improve. And something even more serious than this happens: the universities remain alien implantations not integrated into the new India."(10)

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eport of the University Education Commission (Government of dia), 1950, p. 414. The idea of the "affiliating university" was at it should be a wholly examining body, teaching being provided the colleges it "affiliated."

ples could be multiplied. Let me leave the thought that, although may have been done to accommodate selected features of univer- whose origins were derived from Europe or America to their new onments and indeed to innovate new ones, the tenacity of the orig- nodels may owe something not merely to their virtues, or even to mic conservatism, but to those "crushing burdens" of which Ashby y speaks, many of which are the result of unbalanced development.

But secondly, universities in developing countries are likely vulnerable because they are inevitably engaged in producing what d is seen to be, an elite. This is especially so in countries in the modern sector outside government and the professions is , or largely monopolised by a particular ethnic group. It is par- rly dangerous where there is a very great disparity between rewards public service and the market sectors of the economy and those of ricultural and subsistence sectors, and where the extension of cy and the influx into cities have outstripped the capacity of the rn sector to absorb the newly "literate" or "urbanised." If the dary school output is sufficiently large to produce numbers with inimum qualifications for entry into the universities far in excess t the universities are capable of providing for, and there is a ency of other forms of post-secondary training, universities which maintain what they consider adequate standards will be represented lemocratically denying access to those who merit it. If, on the hand, universities abandon any such attempt, standards may fall astrophically that adequate graduates may no longer be produced ficient numbers to meet the actual needs of the society. This is say that the true limits on student numbers are necessarily where rticular university may be disposed to set them; but only that, ny given supply of buildings, equipment, and teachers, there is upper limit. There is thus a fairly wide range within which the ation of academic snobbery and an undemocratic denial of access interests of maintaining "foreign" standards and the convenience demics can plausibly be levelled.

Even if these tensions can be reduced by better planning of lated levels in the educational pyramid, the values for which a sity essentially stands--disinterestedness and objectivity in the nission, the acquisition, and the application of knowledge--are richer countries) amount indeed to something like the re-creation conditions of an aristocracy. Security from dismissal, the ability haracter to pursue problems which interest one, the leisure to do hether this comes from a relatively low compulsory teaching load, leave, foundation grants, or long vacations), in short the condi- which make one's work one's hobby, are only tolerable if university ers, as a whole, exhibit the sense of social responsibility character- of successful aristocracies. To do so will, of course, substantially the possibilities this analogy suggests. I am not concerned to argue hese are minimum or essential conditions in a university in a poor ry. Indeed many university teachers elsewhere who enjoy such tions only to a limited extent are nonetheless able to do good work is a paradox of any university worth the name that the really first usually manage to carry the heaviest loads. My object is rather to st why it is that to many who know little of what a university is, tions which fall below or pretty near the minimum, nevertheless r to be something like those of an aristocratic elite and the more a poor country.

There is a third reason why, in many, though not all, develop- ountries universities are particularly vulnerable to pressures iated with development. By contrast with the two we have been dering, it is more in the nature of a historical incident, but one easily resolved in practice than in theory. Partly as a result of origins, direct or derived, in a colonial period, many universities ch countries teach, at least to some extent, not in the national, but "world" language. It is unnecessary to enlarge here on the problems ching at university level certain subjects in some of the national ages. They are in principle capable of being resolved, but the required to enlarge the technical vocabulary of the language and ovide adequate teaching materials is often formidable, requires derable specialist resources, and competes with other needs for with the necessary technical knowledge. If, meanwhile, the ssary scientific and technical skills are to be taught to a satisfac- level, the use of a world language may be indispensable and the em of attaining a sufficient knowledge of at least one such language erefore of special significance to universities. In some developing tries it seems problematic how far this can continue to be provided e lower levels of the educational system. In future, universities ch countries may accordingly have themselves to provide facilities

III

To academics, the deficiencies of a university system differ-
m their own are usually more obvious than its virtues. Many of
ho work in universities in developing countries, whether foreigners
onals who received their own training elsewhere, and especially
hort term visitors, tend to assess them by the extent to which
semble the universities with which they are familiar. Instead of
icult and painful process of trying to rethink the idea of a univer-
the context in which it actually exists, what is more often prof-
s an invitation to adopt either another foreign model or some
of it. The new model may indeed be free of the defects it is in-
to remedy but--in relation to the environment in which it is being
ced--have other defects all its own.

One of the great costs of many university systems, even in
ed countries, is, for example, high wastage rates. The output
uates in France and Britain is approximately the same but to
them the French system has an initial enrolment of twice as
1) In a rich country, the costs of such high wastage rates may
to be sufficiently offset by the benefits derived from a larger
ion of the relevant age-group getting some experience of univer-
cation. It does not follow that a small and poor country, with a
acity to absorb graduates, can afford to do the same. But neither
necessarily follow that in such a country the appropriate solution
doption of British methods of selection or the kind of educational
re at lower levels that is associated with it. Moreover, the
of such a system may have the effect of maintaining salary
tials (as between graduates and others) which owe their origins
derations extraneous to present circumstances (such as a high
ion of expatriate employment in a colonial period) and which
he development of a more appropriate pattern of utilisation of
es.

A university cannot, in such circumstances, safely evade or
se its concern with all the problems of the development of the
educational system as a whole. It will naturally be more
concerned with third level education of which it is part, and of
level education from which it obtains its students. It may indeed

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Capelle, reported in Bulletin of the International Association

to see, and actively support in the community, the expansion of
forms of third level education at the expense of that further ex-
on of universities which may seem, to many people within the
rsity, obviously necessary. Pressure for university expansion
many developing countries obscured the need for a wide variet
rd level education at levels below that of the university. Even i
pportunities for such other forms of third level education are pr
to an adequate extent, expansion of second level education will
inly generate pressure for more university places. If they are
t will do so to a much greater extent, and the needs for which
forms of third level education should provide will not be effi-
y or economically met by graduates of indifferent quality.

This issue should not be confused with the vexed question o
is, or is not, proper to a university. In my view, the answer t
uestion depends not on subject matter, and certainly not on the
t to which a definitely vocational orientation is required, but
r on the kind of education actually needed for different types an
s of skills, and, more especially, on the extent to which a parti
ccupation calls for an understanding of fundamental principles a
ods of thinking as developed in different disciplines and the capa
e such an understanding in confronting new situations. How far,
g to meet the needs of particular occupations which do in fact ne
qualities, universities should provide the practically oriented
ng also needed is, it seems to me, a question of efficiency and
omy rather than principle. There may be very considerable fee
effects which involvement in such practical training produces i
esign of university education. It is an illusion to suppose that th
lways wholly advantageous. But that they are on balance more
to be advantageous than otherwise I firmly believe. Moreover
ny developing countries, at least in the earlier stages of develo
the lack of possibilities of on-the-job training at this level may
that there is little practical alternative to the specifically voca
aspect of education for such occupations being provided by, or
iation with, the university.

Quite apart from the inclusion in the university of these hi
but practically oriented forms of education and training, if it is
pted that there are at any rate some occupations which call for p
ndary training at a lower level than that with which the universit
operly concerned (as, for example, certain levels of technician
us kinds of mechanics, agricultural assistants, or, perhaps m

small, sparsely populated and poor country, in spreading the over
common (to some extent) to different kinds of third level educatior
bringing them together in a single complex or institution. For su
countries, and perhaps for especially remote or backward regions
larger country, the idea of a multi-purpose higher educational ins
tion in which such a variety of forms of post-secondary education
be offered (the "umbrella" concept as it is sometimes called) may
the most economic, indeed the only, practicable method of providi
locally the varieties of third level education needed. In larger or
richer countries, where much larger outputs of each type are requ
such advantages may soon be overtaken by those of specialisation
certain diseconomies of scale.

Another sector of the national educational system as a v
to their role in which universities in developing countries may nee
give special attention, is that of adult education. In such countrie
case for a variety of forms of adult education to supplement the in
deficiencies of the formal educational system is even greater than
more developed areas. The provision of part-time courses within
university for its normal diplomas, of a wide variety of extramura
courses, some of a vocational and some of a more general educati
kind, must be carefully considered in relation to community needs
what may be available from other sectors of the educational syster
and what the university is especially well suited to provide. By m
its facilities available, by offering specialist administrative suppo
mobilise not only its own teachers but people with specialist knowl
in the community outside, by maintaining a small cadre of travelli
teacher organisers stationed in areas some distance from the univ
sity, and even permanent centres for adult education (associated p
haps with field stations or research institutes located away from it
campus in other cities or in rural areas), the university can make
special contribution to the deficiencies of the national system of ec
tion at third level. But it must constantly attempt to focus its effo
those parts of adult education to which, as a university, it is espec
qualified to contribute and to relate its activities in this field to its
existing educational resources and its long-term plans for their de
ment, as well as to immediate community needs. Its role in pione
new experiments or courses designed to meet such needs, which h
later been incorporated in the ordinary work of the university or ta
over by other parts of a more developed educational system has, i
countries, been particularly significant.

and cultural integration, posed, for example, by the relationship c ancient civilisation to the new society emerging as a result of the ising forces of development. (Where, as in many countries, there number of ethnic groups and a diversity of cultures within a single ical unit, such problems have sometimes proved insoluble and the has burst apart, while even where this has been avoided, they imp major strains on the polity.) It is no accident, accordingly, that versities have sometimes felt obliged (and on occasion been compe to try to promote such integration by required courses for all stud intended to increase their awareness of the history and culture of own country. There is, I believe, an equally strong case for simi courses designed to provide an understanding of the developing so in which students of the university live. These may indeed be reg as two sides of the same coin. Both impose major tasks of resea and scholarship on any university which attempts to offer them bu in which they should most certainly be engaged.

In recent years, in some of the "developed" countries, tinguished practitioners of the creative arts have been introduced universities either as special faculty members or as relatively sh term visitors. These developments have provoked a continuing de on the relationships of universities and the creative arts. There believe, a strong case for more experiments of this kind in unive in developing countries as well as for the provision of greater opp ties to enjoy the fine arts and music. The problems involved in t areas in relation to some of the issues of national integration and identity need much more attention than they currently receive.

All the issues I have touched on have strong political re especially in the very fluid society that for the reasons considere in this paper, is likely to accompany at least some stage of attem very rapid development. A university may, therefore, be tempte avoid any development likely to embroil it in such controversial a or even to withdraw from some on which it has embarked. Alter if government are very sympathetic to the claims of universities many post-independence governments have been) the university m tempted to associate itself so closely with government that it may gravely compromised by an abrupt change of regime. Much can in this context, of the deficiencies of some of the foreign models, which the legal and internal institutional structure of universities developing countries have often been based, in promoting, in the different environments of developing countries, the kind of partne as in safeguarding the degree of university freedom and autonomy, are requisite to their healthy development and most effective discha of their essential functions.(12)

I do not intend to take up these topics here but rather to u line some more general points. The first is that, although as Orteg Gassett put it, universities must be "in the midst of real life and sa with it," they must also be on constant alert to maintain and strengt their continuing effort to exemplify objectivity and disinterestednes teaching, research, and community service. They must be careful maintain close links not only with the "establishment" in the commu but with those outside who may challenge it. Universities need allie but they must, much more actively than many of them do, try to inc among all the groups and individuals with whom they are so linked, better understanding of the "idea of a university" as well as an acqu ance with their current activities and interests. Indeed, it is a vita interest of universities to promote both these things in the wider co munity as well. In countries where there are few other centres or for the diffusion of information and ideas, the university may itself to try and fill the gap in the "middle level" popularisation of its own activities and their relationship to current problems. Yet this may seem a luxury to a struggling university, nor will it necessarily be in the specialised skills the job demands merely because it has a go faculty.

Universities are concerned with the "acquisition, the tran mission and the application of knowledge,"(13) with research, teachi and public service. Everywhere the demands made on them are con stantly increasing, especially if they are good universities. In all t of their functions, the political implications of such demands are lik to be greater, more controversial, and less easily contained by poli institutions, in developing countries than elsewhere. I have tried to analyse why this is likely to be so and to suggest one or two areas i the life of a university in which it may be particularly exemplified:

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(12) See e.g., Silcock, op. cit., p. 81 ff., and the very interesting di cussion in E. Ashby and M. Anderson "Autonomy and Academic Freedom in Britain and in English-Speaking Countries of Tropic Africa" (Minerva, IV, 3, pp. 317-364).

(13) See the brilliant discussion of these issues in J. A. Perkins,

so doing I have, I hope, spelled out a few elements in those "crushi burdens" of which Sir Eric Ashby spoke, especially some which I fe may not receive enough attention if all our emphasis is on manpowe resources and the needs of economic development. I have inevitabl passed over in silence many others (most notably the whole range o issues involved in student welfare, in the widest sense of those wor in which much of what I have tried to say is also exemplified.

I imagine we would all agree that in confronting these "cr burdens," universities in developing countries can only observe th monition of the old man, Stein, in Conrad's novel, Lord Jim:

> "The way is to the destructive element submit yourself, and with the exertions of your hands and feet in the water make the deep, deep, sea keep you up."

In developing countries as elsewhere, the university mus that effort try to ensure that its activities in its three functions are mutually coherent and mutually supporting: if it succeeds some kin balance between them is likely to emerge. Failure to achieve the a priate relationship between these three functions of a university ca one of the most crushing burdens. To do so calls not only for lead of a very high order within the university, for a remarkable partne of intelligence and understanding between academics and laymen in government of the university and in its relations with the communit that supports it, but also for self-discipline. For its own internal healthy growth and development, a university must be ready, on oc to restrict the development of some kinds of teaching, some lines o research, and some areas in which its expert help is sought in the cation of knowledge to the service of the community. In these task can, I believe, succeed only in cooperation with other universities whether in its own country, in its immediate region of the world, o its association with universities in more developed countries.

IV

In the light of the foregoing comments, there are severa spheres in which I should like to urge special consideration of the for university cooperation. The first of these is in the developmer a sociology of education--and especially higher education--in deve countries. Most if not all, universities in such countries need mu more systematic information about themselves, about their inputs, more work on the sociology of education in general and in developin countries in particular, they will need statistical and research units concerned with the systematic collection of data about the processes selection (where there is selection) and the degree of success with v it is performed, about the social background of students, about the a as opposed to the imagined, effect of teaching methods, about the pr lems of students taught in a second language, about the psychologica and practical problems of students during their time in the universit and about the subsequent careers of graduates. In the first place, t calls for a specialist unit in each university and there is an obvious possibility of valuable cooperation in technical assistance in establis such units from those universities (especially any in other developin countries) which have already made progress in that direction. But in a wider sense, there is a real need for regional centres or institu concerned to make relevant materials available throughout the regio to act as a clearing house for the results of such investigations in th universities of the region (whose problems ideally should not be too dissimilar), to attempt to secure greater comparability in basic dat especially of a statistical kind, relating to universities in the region and to initiate more specialised studies of common problems emerg from the material. Such needs could be met by a Regional Institute Higher Education with wider responsibilities, as has been proposed South East Asia. If such an institute were the outcome of cooperatio between research units of this kind in the individual universities of t region, much would be gained in the relevance of the work to the uni sities themselves.

Secondly, in the interests of more widely based thinking a the "idea of a university" in the particular context of one university, a group of universities in a larger country, it seems to me that, wit the limits imposed by the languages of instruction, much more shou done to promote a greater degree of academic intercourse between th universities of a single country or region. My impression is that at present such intercourse is relatively restricted, so far at least as the nationals of the developing countries are concerned. They seem make such visits only for relatively short periods (and even then at fairly high levels), often at conferences, not for periods long enough make any adequate study of the university visited, much less to enga in teaching and research there. If they leave their own university fo any substantial period, they go to work in a university in one of the context of other developing countries is thus likely to be relatively superficial. Exchange arrangements are notoriously difficult to wor in practice but an experiment designed to promote greater experienc of teaching and research in universities of different types within a large country or in neighbouring countries in a region by academics who were nationals of the country in which they were permanently teaching, would be well worthwhile, especially if it were followed up by some systematic attempt to consider the implications of several such experiences for the conception of university education exemplif in the originating university. I have put this in "one-way" terms but clearly the advantages would, in fact, be "two-way." I am, of cours advocating such an arrangement as a supplement, not a substitute, f any of those which now encourage academic interchange over a wide area.

Thirdly, and more generally, if such academic interchang between universities within a region, or between such universities a those in the highly developed countries is to be of maximum advanta in relation to the social, political, and cultural considerations I hav been discussing--as opposed to the individual's scientific or scholar potential--it is desirable not only that opportunities for longer visits involving teaching and research should be available at other univers in a single country or in neighbouring countries in the same region, also that many arrangements with universities in advanced countries should take the form of direct and continuous staff interchange links between departments or research centres in two universities, rathe than merely haphazard placing, so that some greater stock of knowl of the actual circumstances and problems of the university in the de oping countries can be built up in its counterparts elsewhere.

Similarly, moving to a still wider field, continuing links between a group of universities in a developed country or a particula group in a developing area, are of greater potential in promoting a be informed exchange of ideas and dialogue, on the part of the universi in the more developed country, than very highly generalised associa tions. This kind of link is exemplified in the Inter-University Counc for Higher Education Overseas when it consisted of about half as ma British universities as it now does, and was primarily concerned w some half a dozen overseas university colleges, mostly in Africa, c the Africa Liaison Committee of the American Council on Education (which was, in fact, mostly concerned with a particular group of frica which these associations built up was, I am sure, far greater an could have resulted from a more diffuse link resulting from a mor niversal association. Existing links of this type can no doubt be riticised as having cut too little across the ties connecting "foreign odels" with their own origins. But that does not invalidate the point, d could easily be remedied if other similar links were developed.

Even in the most developed countries, consortia of higher ucational institutions are increasingly being used to secure the most onomical use of skilled talent, or to provide rather specialised pportunities for students, or to meet the costs of major scientific uipment. The need for a wide variety of such arrangements involvin e universities of developing countries is the most general form of the se I have been arguing.

But, however much the universities of developing countries d elsewhere combine to help the former keep afloat in the destructiv ement of the politics of modernisation, there is one final consideratio hich I would put to those who are responsible for the major inter- tional aid to universities.

> "University education is likely to be increasingly biassed in two directions: work related to practical needs and studies intended to sharpen the image of the history and culture of the people. It is likely that other branches of learning which have great value in illuminating the condition of man... will go by *default.*"(14)

r my view, one of the major responsibilities falling on the older and tter equipped universities of the world, and their supporters among e dispensers of aid, is to promote university cooperation to help iversities in developing countries to continue to be universities, t mere instruments of development. Unlimited possibilities lie ead of them.

)Adam Curle, "Nationalism and Higher Education in Ghana,"

NIVERSITIES AND DEVELOPMENT: SOME PROBLEMS

Mr. Robinson's Presentation

Mr. Robinson set the framework for the opening session di cussions by outlining the principal ideas developed in his formal pape He stressed the need to underline and clarify the interdependence of olitical, social, and cultural factors with economic factors in the de elopment process and discussed the impact of political values and structure on modernizing efforts. He went on to point out the burde social, cultural, and political pressures--as well as economic ones- lace on the university system. Very often such pressures result in opsided development of the educational system, which in turn tends weaken political stability. The special vulnerability of the university n an environment of change was emphasized by the speaker. These ressures arise from the fact that the universities are to a varying extent derived from foreign models; they are inevitably engaged in pr ducing what is viewed as an elite class, and many of them teach in a "world" language as opposed to the national or regional languages.

Mr. Robinson underlined the need to rethink the essential notions of a university in the particular context in which it exists and not to rely on foreign models. While recognizing the need for other forms of third level (higher) education, he pointed out that the univer must be careful not to destroy or weaken its basic function of discha ts responsibilities in those areas where it has a unique role and whe t is best qualified. The Vice-Chancellor noted that where the univer undertakes to assume responsibility for third level education in such fields as adult education, it should concentrate on areas where it can make a significant and unique contribution. The university must mak ts students understand the problems of the developing country in whi hey live. He also pointed to the university's role in the creative art relating this to the problem of national integration and national identi He strongly maintained that the university must remain true to its co mitment to disinterested teaching and scholarship even while adjustin tself to the needs of national development and public service.

Mr. Robinson noted that there was particular need for coop ion among universities within a country and among universities withi region in intensive study of the field of the sociology of education, in academic exchanges that emphasized teaching and research in univer of different types, and in the development of links and associations in form of direct and continuous staff interchange between departments cussion

Mr. Robinson's paper and his verbal summary sparked a good of constructive discussion and debate.

There was general agreement that more research should be ried out and exchanged in the general field of sociology of education. need for more information concerning the relation of the educational tem to society was recognized, and the value of the exchange of such rmation among universities in both developed and developing societie emphasized. Mr. Robinson stated that it was vital to the effective tioning of a university in a developing country to have basic data on matters as the social background and economic condition of its ents, the effects on the students of being taught in a language not r own, and the effects on the students of residence on the campus utside.

DR. LI stated that too much emphasis was given to economic ors in thinking about development, and that more consideration must iven to the political, social, and cultural factors outlined by Robinson if the role and function of the university is to be intel- ntly appraised. He asked the participants to ponder the question of ther too much human capital was being produced by the universities esponse to the demands of economic development, saying that the ssures of which Mr. Robinson spoke had in some instances resulted remature educational specialization. Dr. Li indicated that if we development as a totality of political, cultural, and social, as as economic, factors, then perhaps the universities, in responding he pressures of the economic development planners, may be pro- ng too many professional technicians. In this context, research in field of the sociology of education is vital. The social, as well as economic, needs must be determined. The need for an educated luate with a general liberal education should not be dismissed. The ss on premature specialization should be re-examined. Dr. Li felt studies in this important area should be shared so that the countries he region would benefit from the experience and problem-solving niques used elsewhere.

The issue of whether universities are to be conceived as ruments of national development planning was discussed at some th. DR. STERLING said that it was his impression that the leader- in many developing countries felt that a general liberal education

t the government leadership in developing societies tended toward a
rt-term view of the country's needs and therefore stressed the appli
ion of specialized technical knowledge to immediate problems.

Several Asian university officials stated that short-term and
g-term needs had to be balanced. DR. ROMULO said that a few yea
in the Philippines he felt that the emphasis on professional speciali-
ion had reached the point of saturation, and had consequently pioneer
hange in orientation towards more emphasis on the humanities. In
ler better to balance the educational system by giving greater empha
he humanities and liberal arts education, various techniques, such a
trolled enrollment, were used. Dr. Romulo said that it was importa
produce more graduates with a liberal and generalized humanities
cation in order to assure political stability. Dr. Sterling raised the
estion as to the goals of the Asian students and whether they favored
re broadly based education or specialized professional training. Sev
l Asian educators stressed that the students' primary motivation
cerned job placement and they were influenced by the job opportuniti
ilable and the qualifications required to fill those jobs.

It was pointed out that a principal problem in developing
ieties was the restricted role professionally trained people defined
themselves. The elite traditions of many developing societies
rved as a barrier to viewing one's role in a broad interdisciplinary
ntext. It was suggested, therefore, that the issue was not one of
ersupply of professional technicians but rather of the narrow con-
ption on the part of these specialists of the innovative role they could
y in a developing society.

In this context, DR. KIRK stated that certain professions had
eater status and an imbalance of trained graduates in certain areas
sulted. He said he felt the universities could help redress this im-
ance by placing limitations on access to education in certain fields
d by giving inducements to education in neglected areas. He stresse
negative effect on national development of certain professions being
corded high status based on prestige factors rather than on national
g-term needs. Both DR. CHIEN and DR. OKOCHI believed that ther
s an imbalance between the natural and social sciences in the produc
n of graduates. Although the phenomenon of fast expanding economic
elopment was recognized, the problem of the oversupply of speciali
certain categories could not be ignored. The need was affirmed of
iking a balance to serve both short- and long-term needs of a develo

VERSITIES AND DEVELOPMENT: SOME PROBLEMS

DR. THOMPSON said that one of the fundamental problems wa
r to estimate needs in a given society. New techological discoveries
n resulted in unrealistic estimates of manpower needs. He went on
ay that there was a constant need to reexamine the output of the ed-
tional system in relation to permanent versus changeable short-term
uirements. He further pointed out that in preparing leadership ele-
its for their role in technological fields, a general liberal arts and
nanities education was necessary if they were to play an imaginative
innovative role and relate their specialities to the overall needs of
r society.

The consensus seemed to be that there was a need to evaluate
efully the role of institutions of higher learning in the context of the
nging society in which they existed. Continuing studies were recom-
ided on the short- and long-range manpower needs of a society and
he university's role in meeting these needs while still maintaining
academic integrity. Also emphasized was the obligation to influence
constructive way the conception of requirements on the part of
lership. The university must share the responsibility for producing
lance of graduates to best meet the needs of society. At the same
e, the universities have a role to play in broadening the vistas of
r students so that they will conceive their role in society in the
adest sense and carry out their technical, specialized responsibili-
in an innovative, constructive fashion with due regard to a wide
ge of interdisciplinary knowledge.

The sharing of the experiences and knowledge gained in this
a through regional cooperative efforts will be vital to a measured
-disruptive response to the challenges presented.

UNIVERSITY DEVELOPMENT: REGIONAL NEEDS AND INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION*

Carlos P. Romulo

Dr. Romulo prefaced his remarks by mentioning that he icipated over the past three weeks in three international educati erences; viz., the Tenth General Assembly of UNESCO in Paris erence of Southeast Asian Ministers of Education in Manila, and ting of the Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher rning (ASAIHL) in Bangkok.

Referring first to the UNESCO conference, Dr. Romulo a proposal had been made to establish a regional institute of hig ning in Southeast Asia but, when he later attended the ASAIHL m in Bangkok, he discovered that ASAIHL had not been consulted o posal. He cited this lapse as an example of the lack of coordinat ch has often led to duplication and otherwise hindered cooperativ ional efforts in education in Asia. Speaking on the accomplishm SAIHL, Dr. Romulo stated that the organization now had been in stence nine years and had thirty-six participating university men n nine countries. He illustrated the contribution of ASAIHL to e onal cooperation in the area by citing the six general conference nerous specialized seminars sponsored by the Association. Des record, Dr. Romulo felt that ASAIHL's budget of $7,000 was pa y small to carry out its high purposes. However, the organizati increasingly determined to rely on its own resources to carry f d its activities. He mentioned the Association's lack of a publis tory as an additional handicap but said that steps were being take remedy this situation. Furthermore, member universities are b ed to evaluate ASAIHL's contribution to them and to report on th ults of previous projects and recommendations. In this connec- n, Dr. Romulo stressed the importance of "follow through" after ernational conferences and said that rapporteurs at ASAIHL conf es are now instructed to distill the essence of the papers presen write the authors regarding implementation of recommendation determine which ideas are useful and what concrete action is bei en. The next general conference of ASAIHL will then review the

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r. Romulo graciously agreed to speak on this subject extemporar
Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao of India would be una

results. Dr. Romulo added that he hoped the present conference w
not overlook the importance of follow-up activity.

Dr. Romulo expressed the view that Asian regional coope
tion was in its initial stages but that the time was now ripe to take
effective action to overcome the legacy of many years during which
states have been separated. He cited the current movement towar
European integration, which followed centuries of intra-European
as an example of what can and should take place in Asia. Intellectu
should take the lead in promoting Asian unity. As evidence of the i
est of the Philippines in promoting closer educational cooperation i
region, Dr. Romulo mentioned that 1600 foreign students were now
rolled at the University of the Philippines; that the Philippines had
signed cultural agreements with Indonesia, India, Pakistan and Tha
in 1963, and that specialized institutes in such fields as teacher tra
labor, public administration, population statistics, and agriculture
been established to train Asians from countries lacking such facilit
He particularly called attention to the International Rice Research
Institute as an institution which is doing outstanding work toward so
Asia's food problem and he thanked the Rockefeller and Ford Found
for their support of the Institute. In discussing the various regiona
training opportunities in the Philippines, Dr. Romulo pointed out th
training in Asia is often more valuable than in the developed countr
because it is more pertinent and applicable to the local conditions i
which the trainee will work. He indicated that another reason that
Asian students were attracted to the Philippines was the high calibe
the Filipino and foreign professors. In the latter connection, he ga
due credit to "sister" institutional relationships with such universit
as Cornell and Wisconsin and to the assistance of the Ford and Roc
Foundations. He went on to say that it is important to concentrate
building up strength in one important field; e.g., agriculture in the
Philippines, in order to attract good students.

Dr. Romulo was of the opinion that the meeting of the Sou
Asian Ministers of Education had been of historic importance inasm
it was the first time that Southeast Asian ministers of education had
with a strong determination to cooperate--including the willingness
set aside counterpart funds. The ministers decided to create a per
nent Council and to establish regional institutes for engineering, tr
medicine, agriculture, higher education, science and mathematics

in the Council's future, particularly as Mr. Eugene Black, Presi
Johnson's Special Adviser on Southeast Asian Development, had i
that substantial funds would be made available immediately and th
long-range commitment in support of regional education program
be sought from the U.S. Congress.

Dr. Romulo concluded his remarks by calling attention
The Asia Foundation's assistance to ASAIHL and educational insti
in the Asian area and by stating that the work of all the foundation
pace-setters, was vital to educational development in Asia.

Discussion

In the general discussion which followed, MR. PIERSO
that The Asia Foundation's support of ASAIHL had been relatively
as the Foundation had been careful to respond only to the initiativ
the officials involved and was understanding of the desire of these
cators to rely on their own resources to the fullest possible exten
many cases, small grants for such purposes as travel to seminar
enabled the Association to develop its own organizational and prof
capacities.

DR. OKOCHI commented on the success of the Fourth I
national Conference of the International Association of Universitie
held in Tokyo in August, 1965, and said that it had had the effect c
awakening Japanese interest in regional educational cooperation.
eral participants agreed that this result was evidence that outside
izations can often create more favorable attitudes within a countr
through conferences and similar activities. DR. STERLING com
that the IAU Conference had been very well organized and manage
the Japanese hosts but that the substance of the proceedings had n
been first-rate, perhaps, he felt, because the meeting had been to
and the primary goal of the working committees had seemed to be
write reports which would receive the unanimous support of the pa
cipants. In further discussion, there appeared to be a consensus
the IAU was not an effective instrument with which to carry out re
educational programs.

DR. ROMULO declared that regional efforts should be
at first, concentrate on excellence, and avoid competition with na
institutions in the same field. He felt the new Southeast Asian Mi
of Education Council, which is composed of only seven nations, w

NIVERSITY DEVELOPMENT: REGIONAL NEEDS AND INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

DEAN COWEN observed that recruitment of adequate staff
or regional institutes was difficult and places a strain on local resou
Many times it might not be necessary to create a new institution, esp
ially when existing facilities could be adapted to regional use.

DR. KIRK advocated the establishment of close ties betwee
egional institutes and the local educational institutions with which the
re affiliated.

DR. LI felt that training abroad was best done at the gradua
evel and that regional institutes could serve as useful vehicles for
aculty development. In addition, he urged that the emphasis in devel
oping regional cooperation should be on the universities themselves,
he governments concerned. Regional institutes should not be create
f the base of the new organization could not be at a university.

In summing up, the Chairman stated that there was an obvi
hrust toward Asian regional cooperation in education, the success of
which will depend upon Asian intellectuals.

He also observed that there appeared to be a consensus tha
regional institutes should be based on existing institutions where poss
ble to ensure excellence and the pertinence of their activities to the
development needs of the Asian societies they were serving.

SECOND SESSION

December 19, afternoon

Chairman:	Gaston J. Sigur, Representative, Japan
Rapporteurs:	James H. Noyes, Representative, Ceylon Louis Connick, Representative, Laos
Papers by:	Kazuo Ōkōchi, President, The University of Tokyo

The Potential Contribution of Universities to Economic Growth in Asia

Grayson L. Kirk, President, Columbia University

The Experience of American Universities in International Cooperation

DR. WILLIAMS
OKOCHI
DR. SIGUR

Dr. Williams, Dr. Romulo, Dr. Okochi

THE POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF UNIVERSITIES TO ECONOMIC GROWTH IN ASIA

Kazuo Okochi

I

In discussing what possible contributions universities can nake toward economic growth, we must first clarify the basic nature f contributions universities are prepared to make to society as a hole. The reason I stress this point is that in Japan, particularly uring the last ten years or so, universities have been under heavy ressure of demand for greater, more positive contributions to the ndustrial development of the country. During the same period apanese universities have also been severely criticized for their nclination to stand aloof from "social needs" and shut themselves up ithin their "ivory tower." I think it is entirely legitimate to argue hat universities must be receptive to the social needs of our time and nust make a conscious effort to meet those needs. No university, egardless of the country of its location, can claim a meaningful xistence if it is completely isolated from the people of that country nd their everyday lives. It is unthinkable, indeed, that any univer-ity would not wish to serve the ultimate well-being of the society of hich it is an integral part. The problem here, however, is not so nuch whether universities should be concerned about social needs in eneral, but rather precisely what constitutes such needs and who has he authority to define them for the universities. Neither of these oints has really been clarified by those who criticize our universities r lack of interest in meeting the needs of society.

When people say that universities should be more concerned bout social needs, do they mean that universities must be ready to espond immediately to whatever demand is made upon them by indus-ry or government? Do they expect from the universities an instant upply of practical knowledge and technical know-how to meet society' nmediate needs? If they do, then I must say that they certainly have wrong idea of the basic function of the university. A university is n no way analogous to a store which can satisfy the demands of its ustomers simply by keeping at their disposal a wide choice of goods. have the definite impression, however, that both government and ecause universities, after all, contribute primarily that which is eaningful to a society from a long-term point of view.

It is convenient to discuss the potential contributions of niversities in terms of their two basic functions: education and esearch. First, universities as institutions of higher education raduate every year a large number of young men of talent. Univer-ities have not educated these young men as specialists who, im-ediately upon graduation, can start applying their specialized nowledge for the benefit of the employer. From the point of view of e universities, these young men are "talented" only in the sense at they are well aware of what fundamental problems exist in their espective fields of specialization, whether in engineering or law or edical science. During their years in school not only have these oung men learned to tackle those problems on their own initiative, ut also have gained a remarkable insight into how such problems hould be solved and what ideals their efforts must serve in the future is these young men of talent who, in their respective professions o laces of employment, will display the ability to analyze the status qu ritically, as well as the desire to effect changes in the status quo oward the realization of their ideals. It is also in these people that e find the leadership potential for future change. Universities must nd universities alone can, produce such men of growing potential. o other institutions really have this ability or privilege.

Universities as educational institutions had significantly ontributed to society before World War II and, of course, they have ontinued to do so after the war. But in all industrialized countries oday, universities have assumed an even greater responsibility for he training of talented youth, largely because of rapid advances bein nade in technology. The kind of university graduates needed today i oth the industrial and governmental sectors of society must be quipped with far deeper and broader knowledge than their predecessors had. They are also expected to have attained a higher level of echnical competence and intellectual maturity than that which was reviously deemed necessary. This does not mean, however, that ostwar technological innovation has simply created a greater deman or those university graduates who possess specialized knowledge in echnology. The impact of technological innovation has been so deep and wide that some of the problems arising therefrom are more soci

It is precisely for this reason that every industrialized ciety feels a special need for people who have a deep insight into, road feel for, and a critical awareness of problems affecting their n fields of specialization. For example, industrial society is esently confronted with serious social problems which have been used by growth of newly developed industries. Another problem equal seriousness concerns man's self-alienation which has become even more conspicuous phenomenon following the introduction of nputers and various other means of technological innovation into siness and industrial organizations. Both of these problems arise ere industrial development and economic growth become the supreme ectives of society and are pushed forward without consideration of cial welfare. In order to cope effectively with the complexity of its blems, modern industrial society needs the kind of young men who approach them with new insight and clear vision. Because these blems of industrial society transcend the narrow limits of speci- ty and technicality, people who deal with them must, above all, be eative thinkers as well as critical observers of social realities. d, needless to say, it is precisely the responsibility of universities train such people. In order to better fulfill this responsibility, st major universities today have clearly shifted the emphasis of ir educational activity from the undergraduate to the graduate level. Japan as well, the new postwar system of post-graduate education quickly gained great importance, at least in well-established ional universities.

I would next like to discuss the potential contributions of versities to social development through their research efforts. have noted in the above that industrial society often imposes hasty nands on universities in the area of education. Likewise, in the a of research, industrial society always asks for that which will of immediate use to its productive activity. This frequently means t the research function of universities is valued only in terms of direct bearing it has on specific business objectives of large enter- ses or on specific policies of the government. It is quite possible, course, that some of the research projects universities undertake, rticularly those in areas of applied science such as naval archi- ture and erosion-control engineering, directly contribute to the nomic growth of a society. It is also true that some individuals

Even if all this is true and possible, however, it reflects st a small fraction of the huge body of research being carried out ithin the universities. The research in applied science which groups ithin universities undertake on contracts with industry differs on one gnificant point from that carried out within industries themselves. hat is to say, regardless of what connections they have with outside terests, all of such applied-science researches are inseparably elated to, and based on, hundreds of other research projects that are ore basic or theoretical, hence not directly applicable in any indus- ial process. A similar situation also exists in various fields of the umanities and the social sciences. Occasionally, some practical udies in economics or law, for example, will prove to be of direct se to industries or government offices. But here again, such practi- l studies could not have been produced without the support of numero her academic accomplishments of a basic or theoretical nature. Th esults of these basic or theoretical studies probably have little meani value, as far as industries and government offices are concerned. ut, it is through these studies that applied science fields are provide th a solid intellectual foundation and a meaningful theoretical frame- ork with which to operate.

The real importance of basic research is not sufficiently cognized when society evaluates the contributions of universities to onomic growth or social needs. Attention is always focused upon ch tangible, direct contributions as are provided through applied ience and practical studies. Whereas, it is frequently overlooked at beneath those surface contributions are the untiring efforts of so any scholars and researchers working in less spectacular but perhap ore important areas of basic and theoretical studies. In order for iversities to become able to make even greater, more lasting contri tions to economic growth, it is essential to strengthen research forts in basic science. It is especially important to give greater en- uragement and support to young scholars and researchers devoted to sic and theoretical studies. Such support and encouragement will in e long run facilitate advances in applied science fields, and will ereby help enrich the potential contributions of universities to onomic growth and the prosperity of individual enterprises. The veloping societies of Asia are well advised to render such support d encouragement to basic studies in order that their universities may ake continuous contributions to economic growth. Of course, this is heir research efforts and thereby contribute as much as possible he autonomous development of their countries. To maintain this onomy they must expend even greater efforts for the improvement research facilities as well as for the training of researchers in ic science and theoretical studies.

II

I have confined my discussion so far to the nature and form he contribution universities are prepared to make through their cational and research activities. I shall now proceed to a discus- n of some of the unique problems universities in Asia are currently ed with in making further contributions to society.

The most notable contribution of Asian universities since rld War II has been made in the area of economic development. s has led to an emphasis on those fields dealing with industrial hnology or production technique. Consequently, universities have st rapidly expanded their facilities for the study of such subjects as ineering, agriculture and other fields of the natural sciences. In an this tendency has been particularly conspicuous among the ional universities; that is, the institutions financially supported by central government. Postwar Japan has concentrated its efforts on rebuilding of the industrial order from the war devastation, the malization and growth of the economy, and the "modernization" of economic structure.

These urgent problems seem to have warranted the emphasis technical facilities. This emphasis has in turn enabled the univer- y in Japan to make tremendous contributions to society in terms of nomic growth and the development of individual enterprises. How- r, such a one-sided emphasis has created growing imbalances ween the technical fields and all the other areas of study. It is y within the last few years that Japanese universities have begun to lect on a restoration of an appropriate balance between these two es of academic pursuits.

In this process of reflection, particular attention has been

the technical fields which are directly useful to industrial develop-
ent. In contrast with these favored areas, most other fields have
en largely ignored simply because they do not contribute to economic
owth. Even modest demands for expansion of facilities and training
young researchers in these areas have been met by only a negligible
sponse from the authorities concerned.

The second point relates to the various adverse effects on
ciety of the rapid industrial and technological development in post-
r Japan. The postwar technological revolution, in which the
iversities have acted as the chief contributors of technical know-how
s had a destructive influence on the welfare of the people. It has
ven rise to many new social problems involving air and water pol-
tion, traffic congestion, and various other social costs. The rapid
vances in industrial technology have also frequently resulted in an
creased feeling of insecurity over employment status in new as well
traditional industries. These huge social costs of industrial
evelopment have naturally led the university people to reflect on the
sharmony between social welfare and the kind of economic growth
chieved on the sole basis of technological advance. There is a grow-
g feeling among the university people in Japan that they must now
ndertake cooperative research on the broad subject of the overall
ffects of industrial development on social life in general, and on
an's welfare in particular.

In order to carry out such cooperative studies, research in
echnology and other areas of the natural sciences, as well as the
umanities and the social sciences, will have to be effectively co-
rdinated. This will mean that our scholars must join hands with one
nother across the various boundaries of university, of university
epartment, and of fields of specialization within each department.
nly when these divisions isolating individual scholars from one
nother are removed, will the universities become able to integrate
nd coordinate their research efforts. If the universities should fail
o do this, their research efforts will only be detrimental to the wel-
are of the working people as well as to the harmonious development
f society.

Universities in Asia must be especially aware of the impor
f a balanced contribution of technical know-how and social

ligious values held by the people. If technological advancement shed forward without regard to these values, it is bound to cause social problems.

A discussion on the potential contribution of the universities ia cannot be concluded without some reference to the need for -university cooperation within the region. All Asian countries certain common "problems" lying in the path of their economic opment. This fact alone seems to offer sufficient ground for asizing such cooperation. An active exchange of scholars and rchers should be planned between various universities throughout If possible, such an exchange program should also include young rsity graduates who have acquired the new technical skills as well insight into the common problems of the region.

However, this type of regional cooperation on the university will not materialize unless Asian universities themselves change of their basic attitudes. That is to say, many universities in look to American or European universities for guidance or assist- Many able students are sent to these universities for advanced ng. I do not deny that such training abroad will be useful to the mic development of their home countries. But as long as this ins the dominant source of knowledge, Asia is never likely to he initiative for its own economic development. In order for universities to make truly meaningful contributions to the eco- growth of their respective countries, they must first shift their tion away from areas outside of Asia, and seek ways to cooperate each other within the region.

In this connection, it will be most helpful if the universities advanced countries of Europe and America will fully appreciate upport such efforts of the Asian universities toward greater omy and intra-regional cooperation. Mutual cooperation and tance between Asian universities are the prerequisites for auton- s economic development in Asia. Only in this way will the ries of Asia be able to ultimately liberate themselves from ialism and hope for a speedy accumulation of national capital, a y growth of national income, and an increase in the welfare of eople.

egional cooperation. First, there are wide language barriers a rmous differences in social, cultural, and religious norms. Th ural barriers alone could prohibit communication and mutual un nding among the peoples of Asia. Second, the stages of econom elopment at which the countries of Asia have arrived vary great ctor which often hampers cooperative efforts. Third, differenc olitical systems and ideology are so large that they often give r onflicts and hostilities between Asian nations.

Notwithstanding these differences and barriers, the coun sia must cooperate because they all share a common destiny. ntries have been destined to be the late starters in economic gr ave their standard of living kept extremely low, and to be depri heir autonomy in economic development. To combat this Asiati gnation and poverty is today the common and supreme goal of al an nations. It is, therefore, extremely important for major un es to rise above all the differences and barriers in order to def stagnation and poverty which is our foremost adversary.

Cooperation of major Asian universities must be develop concrete programs. For example, joint research centers cou set up at several strategic points in the region for the developm echnical know-how aimed primarily at the "modernization" of a ture. Another program of a similar sort would be to create me vice centers to combat local diseases and disseminate medical wledge among the people. It is essential that the governments pective Asian countries render active support to such program s equally important that specialists in the humanities and socia ences should participate in these programs, together with speci he technical fields. The enormous complexity of problems con nting Asian societies is far beyond the control of specialists in ew practical areas of study.

Asian universities must cooperate in still another direc must plan an active exchange of students and young scholars ween the various universities of Asia. The funds necessary fo ecuting such an exchange program must be furnished by the gove nts concerned. I would again like to stress that the opportunity ticipate in this exchange must not be limited to those persons ecializing in applied science fields. This program must be care

THE POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF UNIVERSITIES TO ECONOMIC GROWTH IN ASIA

Dr. Okochi's Presentation

In his introduction, Dr. Okochi stressed that his present necessarily excluded many problems confronting national universiti today: student problems, for instance, that were not at the momen pressing in Tokyo University, but had in the past been intruded fro side by political movements. Dr. Okochi offered to provide a supp mentary paper on any aspect not covered in his presentation. He t read his paper.

Discussion

The Chairman complimented Dr. Okochi for his emphasi the needs of the whole man.* He also noted the speaker's positive recognition of the value of regional cooperation, but also his realis appraisal of the basic problems inherent in the realization of such cooperation.

An American participant stated the important continuing to consider the question of liberal arts vis-a-vis more technical su and in this context, asked Dr. Okochi for comment on the remarka development of Japan in relation to its universities. Japan, he not is clearly the most developed country in Asia and has a technology agriculture with productivity far ahead of the rest of Asia. What, fore, was the role of Japan's universities in fostering this develop In agriculture, for instance, did the universities make a contributi and if so, are the lessons transferrable to the rest of Asia?

Dr. Okochi replied that the universities contributed to ag cultural development, but that there was also an important governm effort through agricultural institutes that had played a seminal role Characteristically, he said, university staff had participated in the government institutes either formally or on a personal basis. The greatest agricultural contribution benefited the large farmers who utilize advanced machinery, fertilizer and other technological bene Progress among smaller farmers had been delayed until after the w when cooperatives were established, and gradually, with the accum tion of some political leverage, benefits accrued to the smaller far

THE POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF UNIVERSITIES TO ECONOMIC GROWTH IN ASIA

Dr. Okochi made a supplementary comment on the gener scope of higher education in Japan that he had not touched upon in h paper. At the end of the 1965 fiscal year Japan had 346 universitie which only 74 were national. There were 235 private universities 37 under the supervision of local governments. If one included jun colleges, the number of universities swelled to 759. Many of these bodies served research and industrial development by means of a r involvement with private industry. But many are weak in teaching and laboratory facilities. With such quantity and financing problen was natural to see the kind of overproduction of law, political scie economics, and other humanities and social sciences graduates ea cited by Dr. Romulo. Without the investment in laboratories or te cal facilities, many of these smaller universities could only expanc humanities and social science faculties. Therefore, approximately of the students in the latter fields are in private universities and th problems of rational manpower planning and utilization have consequently become acute. Ways are being considered in both the priva and public sectors to prevent a growing unemployment problem fro this imbalance in higher education.

DR. ROMULO asked if Japan could join in regional effor order to share the advanced technology that had made it a leading n

Dr. Okochi replied that such a step was the honest desir concern of many professors, particularly in agriculture, engineeri and medical science. The Ministry of Education, however, looks r to Europe and the U.S. and it might take some time for this new en to filter upwards and affect official policy. Japan's interest at the fessional level is matched by other Asian countries, Dr. Okochi sa and the kind of outgoing philosophy exemplified by Dr. Romulo mig well serve in Japan's official ranks.

DR. QURESHI mentioned the appreciative awareness by Asians of Japan's great progress, but cited the considerable hurdl of language for the visiting student or professor going to that count

Dr. Okochi commented that the difficulty of Japanese lan had been perhaps overestimated. The key, he said, was one of att and willingness to live with Japanese families rather than in hotels one mixed only with foreigners or Japanese who spoke English. In

DR. CHIEN, on the point of professorial exchange problem oted that while his university followed the American academic semes ystem, many other Asian universities did not. This posed a real ba o professorial and student exchanges. The Chairman concluded by e ressing appreciation for Dr. Okochi's provocative and illuminating emarks.

THE EXPERIENCE OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Grayson L. Kirk

Before one can undertake to examine the experience of American universities in international cooperation, it is necessary to look briefly at the domestic background out of which this international cooperation grew. In no country in the entire world is there such a vast number of domestic organizations and associations related to higher education. The most recent Educational Directory published b the federal Department of Health, Education and Welfare lists nearly 600 national, regional and functional organizations concerned with American higher education. If it is difficult for a foreign educator to understand what all of these organizations do, he may find comfort in realizing that it is almost as difficult for an American university administrator to keep abreast of all these different, sometimes overlapping, organizations and their various functions.

Why have so many such associations, councils, and societi developed in the United States? At least four separate purposes may be identified, but it must be remembered that many organizations hav been created for reasons that cover more than one of these purposes and some organizations have an operating relationship to all four. Even so, it may be useful to educators from abroad if brief attention is paid to each of these purposes in turn.

The first purpose is to fix and to improve standards of education. In the United States we have more than 2,600 different colleges, universities and other institutions of higher learning. Som are publicly supported and some are private. Some are general and some are specialized in function. Some are very large, numbering scores of thousands of students, while others are small. Some are wealthy, in terms of institutional assets; others are desperately poo Some have educational standards as high as may be found anywhere i the world, but some have disgracefully low standards of admission a instruction. There is no system of American higher education; only vast, chaotic array of independent institutions. One writer has char acterized the administration of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt by the term, "productive disorder." In American higher education v have the disorder and we can only hope that it is productive.

This disorder developed, of course, because of the vast e of the United States and because all control of education in our eral system rests with the individual states, not the federal ernment. Since these states impose educational standards of tly different degrees of rigor and excellence, the results in terms nstitutional levels of quality were bound to be uneven. Yet, pite these differences, each college and university chartered or erwise authorized by the state government to be a degree-granting itution may give what is ostensibly the same bachelor's, master's, doctor's degrees.

In such a situation, voluntary action by the institutions nselves, and in particular by those of high standards, was inevi- e. In America many students transfer credits from one institution nother even before completing a first degree. It is common ctice, also, to take a first degree at one institution and then to k admission for higher degrees at another university. Therefore, ional accrediting organizations were set up by the institutions nselves. Teams of scholars visit an institution and examine its lities and standards. Upon their reports, institutions make isions concerning their willingness to accept credits earned else- ere. Finally, seventeen years ago a National Commission on crediting was established. It is a purely voluntary, inter- titutional Commission, but it has helped to bring some order out he chaos.

A few other illustrations may be useful to show how volun- y action has helped to fix standards. In 1900 a group of the leading versities with the highest quality of graduate instruction established Association of American Universities. The term is misleading ause even today it numbers only forty American institutions--and from Canada--in its membership. But it has had much influence naintaining and improving standards for the entire country in duate education. Another organization, the American Association University Professors, which is national in scope and membership, helped to fix standards of academic freedom and, to a lesser ent, standards of professorial responsibility.

Some inter-institutional organizations deal with specific inter-collegiate athletic contests. Nationally, there are institu- ally supported organizations to set up examinations for applicants admission to colleges. I refer, of course, to the Educational ting Service and the College Entrance Examination Board. Through Association of American Universities and the Association of duate Schools, efforts have been made to reach common agreement such matters as the time in the year when fellowship offers may be de to graduate students, and the deadline after which an institution y not offer an appointment to a scholar teaching in another univer- y.

A second reason for inter-institutional organization comes m the need to present, on occasion, a common front with respect governmental agencies. Thus within each state there is usually an sociation of all institutions, public and private, and in many states ere is also an association of the privately supported colleges and iversities. When state legislative or administrative action reatens to have adverse effects upon the institutions, the association aders attempt to persuade the decision-makers to abandon or modify eir proposed actions. One such perennial problem, for example, is used by the efforts of organized labor to secure governmental action quiring all educational institutions to be subject to the same state ws as are applied to profit-making corporations with respect to such atters as unemployment compensation and collective bargaining.

This need for collective representation now has been ex- nded to the national government. As you know, the national govern- ent now provides certain forms of aid to higher education. Large ums are made available for the support of research, chiefly in cientific fields, by many federal agencies. Others provide funds for cholarships and student loans in certain designated fields. Finally, here is federal aid for certain educational programs and for the con- truction of new physical facilities. Governmental agencies adminis- ering these programs occasionally adopt undesirably vexatious and ime-consuming regulations, and the recipient institutions find it seful to use their collective influence in an effort to bring about some mprovement in the situation. Further, when national legislation oncerning higher education is pending the associations can and do ffer advice to the legislators by appearances at committee hearings.

The third objective of organization is to reduce or eliminat

ern states created the Southern Regional Education Board to
dinate activities in higher education so as to avoid unnecessary
cation of activities. A group of universities in the Middle West
et up an Inter-Library Center. To this Center, they have trans-
d some of their little-used research library collections and each
ution has access to all the volumes which it houses. In this way,
nsive duplication of library resources is reduced.

Another illustration is provided by the recently established
mittee on Institutional Cooperation. This was created by eleven
le Western universities to pool certain resources and to identify
in specialized areas of activity in which inter-institutional
eration could provide greater educational strength and opportunity.
when one institution of the group has faculty strength in some
y specialized field, the other universities may send advanced
uate students to take courses in that university without requiring
tudent to become officially enrolled in it. This device has been
l with respect to certain new fields such as Mathematical Biology
o some foreign language fields for which there is not enough
nt demand to warrant the development of strength in each institu-

Still another illustration may be found in the grouping of
tutions to operate certain costly research facilities. When the
ral government agreed to supply the funds for the construction
maintenance of the Brookhaven National Laboratory, devoted
ly to High Energy Physics and to Radio Astronomy, a group of
ern universities, called the Associated Universities, Inc., was
ed with governmental approval to supervise the operation of the
ratories. A still larger group of universities has now been
ted to administer the proposed 250 Bev accelerator which it is
d the federal government will finance in the near future.

The fourth, and perhaps the principal, objective of inter-
tutional organization in the United States is to provide means
eby individual officers of colleges and universities may share
experiences and problems. Some of the organizations for this
ose are national in scope and general in their interests. Among
e are the American Council on Education, the Association of

EXPERIENCE OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Scores of organizations, either regional or national or both, been set up for specific fields of activity. Some are administra- such as the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and inistrative Officers and the National Association of College and ersity Business Officers; others are professional in the academic e of the term, and among them are such organizations as American ociation of Law Libraries, the American Association of Collegiate ols of Business, and the American Association of Colleges of rmacy.

In this brief survey I shall not attempt to deal with the vast ber of associations and councils representing individual fields of olarly activity. They are formed by individual scholars and not by institutions. They range over the whole field of scholarship; they annual national and regional meetings and they publish hundreds cholarly journals. To give you an idea of the degree of specializa- which they have achieved, I need only refer to the Society of nen Geographers.

To sum up, the United States has an immense variety and ay of educational organizations. They have come into being be- se of the recognized needs which I have just outlined. In the regate they perform services of great utility to education, but they undoubtedly too numerous, and their areas of concern overlap too atly. The result is that, with the exception of the American Council Education, there is no mechanism through which higher education he United States can speak with a single voice to anyone.

With this background of domestic experience in the develop- nt of group activity, it was wholly natural that United States colleges universities should have become involved in international coopera- e ventures. This is largely a phenomenon of the years since the of the last war. The reasons for it are not difficult to discover. h the exception of a few countries that have sealed themselves off m outside contacts, the community of scholars is indeed world- le today. As these scholars have developed their international ociations, they have drawn their institutions into more and more icial involvement. Their modern mobility is such that they can semble anywhere in the world easily and quickly to discuss matters their professional concern.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

The internationalization of scholarship has been matched by
ecedented migration of students across national boundaries.
y year the total grows. Six years ago there were 53,000 foreign
s in the United States. Last year the number had increased to
94,000, and 35 per cent of these came from the Far East, which
ar the largest regional contingent. It is also the region from
he growth in student numbers has been most dramatic, having
by a factor of more than three in the past fifteen years.

Of this huge group of migrating students, approximately
cent were self-supporting, while the others had aid from their
vernments, from American universities, American foundations,
United States Government. They are about evenly divided
n graduates and undergraduates, but the proportion of graduates
rgraduates is much larger among those from the Far East than
ny other region of the world.

While figures for American students abroad are difficult to
ble, it is probable that the total currently is approximately
and it grows year by year. More than half of them are in
ean institutions, but the percentage in Far Eastern universities,
out 11 per cent, has been growing more rapidly than anywhere
As host countries to American students, Japan and the
pines lead the other Asian countries.

In these days, professors go abroad for other purposes
attend scholarly conferences. Last year there were approxi-
4,000 American faculty members abroad on educational
ge missions and there were more than 9,000 foreign professors
holars in American institutions.

Perhaps it will be useful to examine for a moment the
s forms which these international cooperative ventures, in
American institutions have become involved, have taken.

First, there are the periodic international meetings of
sity heads. For many years, delegations of British Vice
ellors and American university presidents have been meeting
er at intervals of two to three years to discuss common problems.
lly for some years a delegation of American presidents has been
ng with an equal number of Latin American university rectors

same purpose. Two such meetings have been held between an university heads and the members of the West German s Conference. Also, American representatives now are regularly to take part in the quinquennial conferences of the ation of Commonwealth Universities, and as most of you know ne recent Tokyo conference, American presidents have taken ve part in the quinquennial meetings of the International ation of Universities.

Next, we must take note of the many bi-lateral relation- between individual American and foreign universities. These varied that it is difficult to classify them. Some are historic ements for the exchange of professors, but these are not ous or quantitatively important. More recently, however, and as a consequence of the American foreign aid program, individ- nerican institutions have developed special relationships with n universities, particularly those in new and developing ies. There have been hundreds of these exchange programs in years. Some have had the objective of building a new univer- an example being the role of Michigan State University in ping an entirely new institution at Nsukka in Nigeria. Others take to develop a desired new program of study and research in sting host institution. An example of this is the effort by nbia to develop modern business education at the National rsity in Buenos Aires.

A third field of activity is a consequence of the student tion. In addition to the provision of special offices and pro- s for foreign students on our own campuses, most of the leading ican colleges and universities help to support and participate in ctivity of American organizations that have been set up to facili- tudent exchange. Of these, the leading one is, of course, the ute of International Education which has its headquarters in New regional offices elsewhere in the United States, and branch es in Asia, Latin America, and Europe. To supplement its work are special organizations to deal with foreign students coming such regions as Africa and the Middle East.

While many American students abroad are following individ- rograms, not sponsored by any American institution, some United s institutions have set up formal programs of foreign study for

their students. The oldest of these, in existence for about forty
is the Junior Year Abroad. In this program, a selected group o
students studies in a foreign country for a full year under the gu
of faculty personnel sent with them from the American college i
they are enrolled.

Another and more recent development is the foreign s
lite or branch established permanently in another country by an
American university. Students who have the proper linguistic a
other qualifications are authorized to go abroad to live for a per
of time in the foreign branch of the university, to follow regular
courses of study, and then to return to complete their degree re
ments at home. I shall not venture to discuss this new developm
any further because my colleague, President Sterling, has had
experience with this type of venture than any other American un
president, and I will defer to him to answer any questions which
may have.

By now I have said enough to make my point, which is
American colleges and universities and their faculty members h
become involved during the past twenty years in a vast network
international cooperative arrangements. Some of these include
groups of institutions, some are purely bi-lateral, some deal o
with faculty members, and some with students. This involveme
grows year by year and it probably will continue at an accelerat

The important question for Americans at least is: W
lessons can be derived from this experience? Or, to put the m
in another way: What is the balance-sheet in terms of assets an
liabilities both for the Americans and the non-Americans who h
been involved in these interlocking activities?

Obviously, it is important to know how the foreigners
about this venture in academic cooperation, but I would not unde
to speak for them. This they must do for themselves, and I hav
uncomfortable feeling that, in any case, their own tendencies,
whether from feelings of ambivalence or politeness, are to be m
too reticent. Hence, I can speak only in terms of my impressio
the lessons that can, or ought to be, drawn by those of us in the

THE EXPERIENCE OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

My first impression is that American educators have
learned a great deal about the world of scholarship beyond our s
Even so, it was still possible for one commentator to write only
year that "it is demonstrable today that government agencies, bu
nesses, and non-governmental organizations know more about th
opposite numbers in other nations than do our universities and c
American educational institutions generally lack an intimate kno
of their counterparts abroad, especially of the requirements and
standards their diplomas and degrees represent. . . "[1]

We must remember that, prior to the past twenty year
most American educators had only a fragmentary knowledge abo
higher education anywhere outside Western Europe, and for mos
them their knowledge of Europe was limited chiefly to Britain an
Germany. It is a regrettable fact of human nature that what one
not know about a foreign culture one is likely to dismiss as being
inferior to one's own. It is an equally regrettable fact that if on
culture has achieved recognized distinction in one part of its inte
lectual activity, whether it be technology, philosophy or art, its
people tend to downgrade other cultures which have failed to mak
comparable progress in that single phase of their cultural life.

Therefore, I fear that many Americans have embarke
cross-cultural enterprises with grossly insufficient intellectual
They have assumed that their task in the intellectual field was li
of the Christian missionaries of the past century in the field of r
gion. In other words they have sought to uproot some of the ide
organizations that have worked well in the United States and to t
plant them virtually without adaptation to a foreign soil. When t
have failed in their efforts, their natural tendency has been to bl
the failure upon the foreigners and not upon their own insufficien
grasp of the complexities of older and different cultures.

To put the matter in another way, it is my judgment t
Americans now are beginning to learn a great deal more about t

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[1] The University Looks Abroad: Approaches to World Affairs at
American Universities. A Report from Education and World A

world than they knew before. Naivete is being replaced gradually sympathy and understanding. Sophistication, in the true sense of term, begins to replace crude and nationalistic assumptions, and this is an asset of great value for us, and since one must assume the process is reciprocal, it is of value for everyone concerned.

Now let me turn for a moment to a few specific lessons which we have learned from our experience in international educational cooperation. First, we have learned that simple faculty exchange is useful but only within rather narrow limits. It is a difficult process to fit a faculty man for a time into an entirely different educational system. His standards of living are different. The amenities of life and work are different. His relationship wit academic administrators and with government authorities may be entirely different from those to which he has been accustomed. E faculty-student relationships are likely to be different. He may le a great deal as an individual from his experience but he is not like to make any significant contribution to the life of the host institutio There are exceptions, splendid ones, but the general rule is, I fea much as I have described it above. Hence, while we should not br aside the value of direct faculty exchange, we should not expect to much from it.

Student exchange falls into an entirely different category The flood of foreign students in the United States has been a splend asset to us. It has contributed enormously to the education of American students, and I am gratified over the fact that more than ten per cent of all the students in my own university are of foreign nationality.

There are, however, pitfalls in this process and we mus not overlook them. The initial culture-shock of foreign study is always great. This is why I may differ to some extent from my col league, President Sterling, in my own strong conviction that the ti for foreign study is most advantageous after a student has taken hi first degree at home. He is more mature, more oriented toward a profession, less likely to be overwhelmed by loneliness, and less likely to come to the United States with unrealistic and unrealizable expectations.

may, in consequence, have difficulty in readjusting himself to the different conditions of life at home. There is, however, an area danger for the graduate student which we must not overlook. If he has been trained abroad, particularly as a scientist, he may expe ence serious frustrations when he returns home. He may not hav access to the scientific equipment to which he has become accusto he may not find the familiar scientific journals in the library, and may not find among his colleagues the stimulation that comes fron intellectual dialogue with others who have reached the same level expertise in the specialty he has chosen for himself. In my trave I have encountered many such former Columbia students. Some c them have lost their intellectual zest and others have allowed thei sense of frustration to grow to the point that they are prepared to leave their own country and to migrate permanently elsewhere. I sofar as is humanly possible, it is important that foreign students particularly at the graduate level, be guided into fields of professional interest that they will be able to exploit fully and in a satisf fashion after their return home. This is not an easy task, but it i one whose importance should not be overlooked.

Within the American university we have learned that in tional activities abroad, though satisfying and gratifying intellectu and socially, do have hidden costs to the institution that may be se When faculty members are sent abroad on a mission, they must b replaced by temporary appointees, usually on a visiting basis fron other institutions. Thus the initial release of men for foreign wo may have a chain reaction, and a disruptive one, in many instituti at home. Moreover, most of these men will be senior scholars a large part of whose university service will consist not of formal classes, but the supervision of individual research projects and th guidance of doctoral candidates in the preparation of their dissert tions. A temporary visiting professor simply cannot pick up this kind of load effectively, and so it happens that much of the burden caused by the departure of a senior man will fall upon others of hi permanent colleagues in the same department.

The obvious answer to this problem would be to staff a department so fully that some men could be away for periods of ti without causing an undue burden upon their colleagues. But Amer universities simply do not have the resources as yet to "stockpile faculty members in this fashion.

Some American universities have tried to solve the staff roblem involved in foreign commitments by assembling a group of cholars from other institutions and sending them abroad under con- ract appointment from the sponsor institution. This, of course, is isruptive to the other institutions, but it also has a risk of another ort to the sponsor. If the project fails because of unfortunate choice f men, it is the sponsoring institution that must shoulder the respon- ibility. It is my belief that an American university ought not under- ake foreign commitments unless it can manage to staff the necessary ask-force largely from the ranks of its own scholars.

I have been talking about some of the specific problems nvolved in student exchange and in the assumption by American niversities of project commitments abroad. Now let me return to ome more general conclusions and lessons from our experience in nternational cooperation.

A first lesson which we have learned is that university problems throughout the world differ more in degree than in kind. W all face the problems of inadequate staff, inadequate facilities, and inadequate funds to deal with hordes of students that descend upon us. The upsurge of demand for higher education is world-wide and every- where it has strained human and fiscal resources to the utmost. Second, we all face the perennial problem of university autonomy. Traditions and legal arrangements in this respect differ widely from country to country, but the struggle between the desire for universit autonomy and the assertion of governmental controls over the univer sity is almost universal. It is difficult in any country to bring the people to realize that a university can serve its society best if it is left free from political domination, and the problem is peculiarly dif ficult where the university conceives of its task as the encouragemen of basic political and social change. Autonomy can be secured only i the university itself is responsible in its determination to be a forum in which all doctrines may be examined, but in which there is no institutional commitment to any single path to social salvation. Som how we must make our students realize that the shores of history ar littered with the wreckage of the fighting faiths of the past.

Because our problems are so similar, we all stand to gai from organized inter-institutional contacts. Though I have talked at of the difficulties and problems involved in such a development, I would not wish you to conclude that I am in an way unenthusiastic about the importance of international cooperation Just as in the United States we have learned much from the exchange of views and problems in our domestic associations, so we now have much to learn from each other in international contacts. What Lady Jackson has called the "Spaceship-Earth" is now too small to be guided safely into the future unless all of us are more aware of our similarities as well as of our differences. And the basic similarities grow while the differences diminish.

In this process of developing understanding, the universit of the world have a role of growing significance. Within each societ they now occupy a position of importance unprecedented in human history. Our universities are now, as never before, at the heart ar center of society. Upon them, social progress now largely depends

But the uniqueness of their role within each society is matched by the uniqueness of their opportunities in international affairs. The differences of political doctrine that divide the governments of the world are less apparent and less relevant when univers scholars and administrators gather to talk over their problems. I noted that students in universities, who have demonstrated vigorous against the appearance of foreign government officials, are willing, even eager, to listen to scholars and university administrators fro the same countries. There is still a *rapport* in the world of the intellect that offers channels of communication frequently denied to those who have governmental responsibilities. We must make the fullest use of it.

Thus it is that, whatever the costs and difficulties, whatever the problems that may be involved, we all have an obligation, the common interest, to push ahead with our plans and programs fo international cooperation in the university world. That is why we a here and that is why we must meet again and again.

Kirk's Presentation

In a brief summary of his paper Dr. Kirk first outlined the ons d'être for the six hundred or so national, regional, and functiona nizations concerned with higher education in the United States. Sinc control of education results in varying standards, these organiza- s serve to standardize and improve university curricula. They give universities some solidarity in their relationships with governmental ncies. They minimize duplication of effort by, for example, the de- pment of library systems with central book depositories which provi the needs of a cluster of institutions and reduce individual library enditures. They encourage inter-university cooperation, making it sible for students of one institution to take courses at another, and facilitate the sharing of experiences and problems.

Referring to the activities of American universities in foreign hange, Dr. Kirk pointed out the extensive experience of the United tes in hosting foreign students and professors. He noted a marked ual growth and said he expected the flow to increase for some time come. Although the expansion has not been nearly so dramatic, re has also been an increase in the number of American students professors studying and teaching abroad.

Programs of international exchange have included meetings ween American university heads with their counterparts in the Unite ngdom, West Germany, and Latin America, the Junior Year Abroad satellite programs for American undergraduates, scholarship pro- ams for foreign students at American universities, and a variety of ntractual relationships between American and foreign institutions. though the results of these exchanges must be studied to determine exact benefits derived, there is no question that they have broadene horizons of both American and foreign students and professors. . Kirk expressed his belief that for reasons of personal and academi aturity and career direction student exchange is more valuable on the aduate than on the undergraduate level, and he cautioned against the ew of international exchange as a general panacea.

In closing, Dr. Kirk said one of the basic problems is how t ake the best use of the United States' accumulated experience in high ucation in order to best serve the educational needs of developing untries. He stressed the importance of meetings like the present oundation conference in establishing dialogues in the international ed- tional community. The exchange of ideas and the establishment of

ords is easier, he said, at the academic than at the political level,
it is not unrealistic to suppose the influence of educators could
ch beyond the academic community to influence national attitudes
foreign policies.

cussion

DEAN COWEN opened the discussion by raising some of the
iculties involved in student exchange. Australia's foreign students,
pointed out, are for the most part Asian undergraduates who have
ne to Australia because of a shortage of facilities at home. The
atest difficulty is the disorientation that frequently results in a
dent's unwillingness to return home. The so-called "brain drain,"
. Cowen said, is more serious in Asia than elsewhere in the world
should be minimized by more effective remedies.

The successful programs at The Chinese University of Hong
ng, Stanford University, and the University of California were re-
wed in support of undergraduate exchange and DR. LI stressed the
ed to integrate visiting undergraduates with the rest of the student
dy to insure the maximum benefit for both.

Several reasons were offered for the unwillingness of gradua
dents to return home. It was pointed out that frequently students
ach such a high degree of specialization in their work abroad that the
nnot be accommodated at home because of a lack of equipment, resea
nds, and library facilities. In such cases they can only expect fulfil-
ent abroad. It was also suggested that bright, well-trained graduate
dents are often considered a threat by less well-trained senior facul
embers who have the power, because of the archaic organization of
any Asian universities, to thwart a student's advancement. The
iversity of the Philippines' solution to this problem, DR. ROMULO
id, was to give an automatic promotion and salary increase to all
aduate students returning with Ph.D. degrees.

Turning to faculty exchange, Dr. Li spoke of the important
ntribution the program at The Chinese University had made to the
evation of standards at the three constituent institutions during the
st three years. He stressed the need to give credit to faculty mem-
ers teaching abroad. Dr. Kirk commented on the disruptive effect on
department of the departure of one of its members for a one- or two-
ear teaching assignment abroad. A temporary replacement must be

for him and the burden of supervising the work of his research
rs must be assumed by other members of the department. The
olution to this problem, Dr. Kirk suggested, was to stockpile
rstaff the faculty, an expensive solution which Dean Cowen felt
be practicable only in American universities.

DR. THOMPSON criticized American institutions for not
sufficient support to the international exchange of faculty,
gh he noted an increasing number of institutions, particularly
nd grant colleges, that recognized the need to wed service and
rship for the benefit of institutions in developing countries. The
ion would not be improved, he felt, until university heads took a
nal detailed interest in faculty exchange and made it possible for
fessor to spend a year or so abroad without jeopardizing his pro-
nal career. There is also a need, he felt, for organizations, like
stitute of International Education at the student level, which would
clusively concerned with international faculty exchange.
STEWART agreed that the greater difficulties in faculty as
ed to student exchange underscored the need for more extensive
ssions and planning.

In closing, the Chairman noted the certainty of increased
nt and faculty exchange and emphasized the need for further
of the problems involved in order to insure the benefit for all
rned.

THIRD SESSION

December 20, morning

man: Lyman Hoover, Representative, Republic of China
rteurs: Douglas P. Murray, Representative, Singapore
James H. Noyes, Representative, Ceylon

s by: Zelman Cowen, Dean, Faculty of Law, University of Melbourne; Vice-Chancellor-designate, New England University

The Role of Universities in Legal Development in Asia

S. L. Chien, President, National Taiwan University

New Patterns of Inter-University Cooperation in the Natural and Physical Sciences

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES IN LEGAL DEVELOPMENT IN ASIA

Zelman Cowen

In February 1965, a conference of more than 100 jurists, ng lawyers, judges and academic lawyers, drawn from the ast Asian and Pacific regions met at Bangkok under the auspices ternational Commission of Jurists. A main theme of the meet- the Role of the Lawyer in a Development Country. The third tee of the Conference which specifically considered this matter d in these terms:

> "The law is not negative and unchanging. It should not be a yoke, but a light harness holding society loosely but firmly together, so that it may move freely forward. Order is important, but it must be an evolving order; the law must be firm yet flexible, and capable of adapting itself to a changing world. This is especially so in a developing country.
>
> "Poverty, lack of opportunity and gross inequality in the Region require leaders who understand the need for evolutionary change, so that every citizen may look to a future in which each may realise his full potential as an individual in a free society. The great need of the peoples of the Region requires action, lest freedom be utterly forfeited. Beset by threats from the right or left, the statesman must find means to advance the economic and social development of his country and countrymen, whilst preserving or establishing the institutions and the freedoms which are the cornerstones of a free society under the Rule of Law.
>
> "These problems require the lawyer to play a vital role in their solution. They cannot be solved by lawyers alone. But the life of man in society and his relationships with others are the lawyer's special knowledge and study; in many parts of the Region lawyers are particularly well equipped to see these problems in perspective and to devise solutions.
>
> "The lawyer must look beyond the narrower confines of the law, and gain understanding of the society in which he

More precisely, the Committee formulated the obligations
ers, particularly in developing Asian societies. The lawyer
strong moral obligation to uphold and advance the "Rule of Law"
"it brings him into disfavour with authority or is contrary to
t political pressures." Lawyers must be available to serve all
uals who have need of their services and must "take an active
implementing and making effective schemes of legal aid for the
nd destitute." It was the responsibility of lawyers to endeavour
g the law into a form which will enable a developing society to
e and its members to attain their full dignity as human beings,
away deadwood, to achieve clarity where previously there was
ity in the law. The lawyer must assist in the complex task of
istration in a developing society, and in so doing "he should
. . . that it be executed with respect for the rights of the individual
herwise according to law, and strive to assure judicial review
administrative acts which affect human rights."

The achievement of all this, it was said, vitally depended on
education. The Committee called on lawyers "to be actively con-
d with legal education and the provision of adequate incentives for
ers of law and to do their utmost to implement the principles
iated in those conclusions. The Rule of Law, as a dynamic
pt, requires that legal education should bear a realistic relation
social and economic conditions obtaining in developing societies
t future lawyers in the Region may be better equipped to perform
role in a constructive manner."

It is clear that for many developing Asian countries, this was
ement of norms, and that actual performance fell far short. In
a distinguished Committee under the Chairmanship of the Chief
ce of India reported on the *Reorganisation of Legal Education in*
niversity of Delhi. The Committee explicitly formulated its view
appropriate role of the law and lawyers in Indian society. It
ved that its recommendations "proceed on the main and basic
nption that law has to play a dynamic role and those who follow the
ssion of law must be intellectually equipped with a proper function
role." That role was quite explicitly defined. "It is obvious that
democratic country, the achievement of the ideal of the Welfare
is substantially assisted by the process of law, and in that sense
ecomes a mighty weapon in the armory of democracy by which
-economic revolution is brought about. . . the roles of the lawyer,
vocate and agent have changed and the lawyer has emerged as the

architect of modern economy and governmental, organisational a regulatory process. In this context law has ceased to be merely command of the legislature or the monarch. . . it is a social instit democratically evolved for achieving the object of making social ments to meet the challenge which incessantly flows from unsatis legitimate human desires and ambitions. Today, the basic diffic which is experienced in the public life of the country (India) is an absence of a proper intellectual conception and attitude towards t function of law. The old notion that the law is static has not yiel place to the progressive notion that law is dynamic; and so, the f to approach the problems of law functionally introduces a serious ness in the body politic of India."

This was the critical self judgment of an expert and so ticated Indian committee. As pointed out, much of the law of Indi it stood, took the form of rules whose authority simply depended the existence, the sanctity, and the antiquity of the rules: their vance to the needs of Indian development was not questioned. In case of India there have also been superimposed upon the indigen law, Western legal doctrines and influences in the shape of the E common law. Elsewhere in Asia there have been comparable We superimpositions whether in the form of common law or the Euro civil law systems. This too adds to the difficulties of fashioning relevant to the needs of developing communities, for the importe to quote the words of Arthur von Mehren, an able and acute Amer observer of Asian legal systems, "inevitably neither fits well the tional values and attitudes of the adopting society, nor is it fully priate for the kind of economic and social development that the so is undertaking."

A Korean lawyer has recently looked at these matters i context of his own country. In a very perceptive article he points that concepts like the rule of law have little meaning for Koreans. view the law with hostility and mistrust; it is seen as something i from outside, as the dictate of a ruler, and a hated foreign ruler that, to be used against the citizen and to oppress him. Thus the was seen simply in terms of penal sanctions, and it became a virt thing to evade it and to "hoodwink" the law and law enforcement o The notion of obligation has traditionally not depended on legal ru but rather on family or community ties. All of this has been very

the disrespect for the law has become a very definite national
So he concludes that "the people do not have a valuable heritag
legality to be proud of. The present legal system has been tra
planted on Korean soil from Europe. It has yet to take root in
alien land. It is clearly one of the most modern and scientific
systems of the world. But it is regarded as neither urgent no
tant to the daily lives of the ordinary people. The law is inten
be for the benefit of the people, but the people do not know how
advantage of it. It gives a legal right to a Korean, but he is re
to exercise it, because traditionally it was not a 'virtuous' thi
resort to the law."

No doubt the judgments of the Indian Committee and
Korean lawyer have very real relevance to other areas of Asia
observations and criticisms teach that there are formidable di
in the path of willing acceptance and recognition of a dynamic f
role for law and lawyers. Because law is viewed as a static,
body of rules, because it is viewed as the assertion of arbitra
often cruel authority, there is little respect for those who wor
serve the legal processes, so that lawyers are seen--and see
selves--primarily as manipulators of the system, whose view
own role is very limited. As Arthur von Mehren, who has had
siderable opportunity to study the Indian legal system and was
of the Chief Justice of India's Committee, puts it:

> "Individuals turn to law and to lawyers when their b
> and values are not those that are generally accepted.
> and the lawyer provide official sanction and support fo
> deviant behaviour. Perhaps in developing societies in
> law is being used consciously and pervasively as an ins
> of social change, this negative evaluation of law and of
> legal profession can be overcome by the contributions
> new order. But, in most developing societies, law is
> today, nor was it in the past, widely and pervasively s
> As in India, the politician, the economist, and the engi
> are charged with remaking the society. The law may a
> in the form of public law and administrative law, but th
> private law seems to play only a small role in social c
> And so, the lawyer tends to be looked upon as a kind of
> manipulator or fixer, who fails, in many ways, to repr
> the society's basic values and attitudes."

More than this, in many developing societies, including India, the
economic basis of the profession is poor: in a traditional rural soci
the lawyer generally has a low income, although, of course, in the
there are rich commercial practitioners. For the most part the la
is seen not only as a fixer, but also as a rather seedy character of
rather low economic and social status. And the functions which he
performs, and regards as appropriate to a lawyer, give him little
encouragement to play any creative role in the society.

The observations of the Korean lawyer on lawyers in Kor
are not very much more encouraging. He too says that the legal pr
fession is not held in high regard, that the Korean Bar which grew
under the Japanese rule was regarded with suspicion because its
members were mostly Japanese trained and cooperated closely wit
Japanese colonial administration. That distrust survives, and the
profession in general has done little to abate it. The people have s
an unwillingness to approach lawyers. "This unwillingness of the
people to take advantage of the services of lawyers," he writes, "i
part due to the lack of effort on the part of the legal profession to e
lish a better and more effective relationship with the public. But th
reluctance of the people can best be explained in terms of the tradit
hostility of the Korean people toward the law and any one connected
the law. The people must be made to come to the lawyers for advic
and help. The people must be made to appreciate the value of their
professional services. The general attitude of the people towards t
law colours their attitude towards the legal practitioner. Therefor
before practitioners can do effective work towards building the Rul
Law, the Rule of Law must be secured so that the people may be ab
to view the law as something for their benefit. Now we are again b
in the vicious circle. How can we break the circle and make the pe
trust the law and the lawyers?"

The problems, whether viewed in the Indian or the Korea
terms, are tough ones. If Asian societies, however different from
another, agree, as we hope they may agree, on common goals of
furnishing progressively better standards of life for their peoples
within the framework of free institutions, we have to contemplate t
generation of something like a revolution in their attitudes to law.
the law will be of critical importance in the formulation and implen
tion of the plans and programmes which are necessary to tackle the
problems of poverty, social backwardness, and underdevelopment.

programmes are to be clearly and intelligently drafted and articu
That is an immense task. Economists, planners, and engineers
vital, but the framing of the structure within which they work wil
that work is to be done properly, inevitably be the task and work
lawyers who must have the capacity to draft clearly and with brea
of understanding. Moreover, the implementation of the plans cal
high legal skills in the broadest sense. Otherwise there is a very
danger that the whole complex administrative structure will bog
in inertia and delay, in corruption, and in arbitrariness. All the
difficult problems are familiar enough to Western lawyers, broug
face to face with the working of complex administrative machines
they have the advantages of high technical skills, a broadly based
education and pride in a professional tradition. It is much more
cult when the problems of development are so much greater, and
the resources, including the resources of human talent, are so m
less.

There is a great mass of work to be done by lawyers,
properly trained, in the public sector. In the private sector too,
will also be in Asian societies, as elsewhere, a great and import
role for properly trained lawyers. Inevitably, as in the case of
developed societies, their role will in a sense be a "manipulative
but this will not be the end of the matter. Necessarily they must
develop the social and professional responsibility which is chara
teristic of great Western legal professional organisations: a con
for law reform, for high standards of ethical practice, an accept
of the obligation to furnish legal aid through properly organised
services for those who cannot otherwise afford it. And the poor
be found in very large numbers in Asia.

The role of the universities in promoting legal develop
in Asia is beyond doubt a very important, indeed a critical one.
Mehren's judgment on the Indian situation is very definite on this

> "In my judgment," he writes, "the most promising--
> indeed probably the only potentially decisive--key to the
> problem is legal education. The fundamental difficulty is
> after all, one of intellectual attitude and conception--the
> failure to approach legal problems functionally, and its
> corollary, a static conception of law. Conceivably social
> and economic change, particularly as expressed through

> a functional approach to legal analysis and a dynamic conception of law. But a long time will be required; legal education, by shaping the men and minds that will address themselves to the problems of law, offers the best--probably the only substantial--hope of accelerating, and consciously assisting, the process."

agree without qualification with this assessment. But, of course, th ystem of legal education must be carefully and properly designed. N roblem is solved simply by setting up an indigenous law school in a lace where none existed before, because lawyers were sent abroad t ngland or Europe, or were, in a colonial pattern, required to acquir n English or other oversea qualification. An indigenous school and a ndigenous qualification may fail to provide an adequate legal educatio nd, in fact, in many cases the indigenous schools have failed. This otably the case in the Indian schools. They are many in number and nany of them have been long established. Their failure in performan s recorded in a series of reports on legal education of which the 1964 Delhi report is the latest. Dean Anandjee of Benares Law School--a ery able man who did graduate work at Yale--in his 1962 Dean's repo lescribed the tasks for legal education in India as "stupendous." He ointed to what he called the generally low standard of legal education n India.

> "During recent years," he wrote, "the role of law graduate has been much misunderstood, criticized and even maligned. While there is some truth in the assertions that the lawyers-of-the-day are obstructionists, technical interpretationists and impediments in the establishment of a socialistic pattern of society, it has rarely been realized that the remedy lies no in decrying the profession, but in providing a system of legal education that will produce men adept in tailoring traditional legal prescriptions to the needs of present-day India and maki our law a tool of social engineering.
>
> "Moreover if we are to have a successful democracy or even to achieve our socio-politico-economic objectives within the framework of our Constitution, the importance of legal education cannot be minimized. (It is certainly no less important than the study of scientific and technological subjects.) Indeed, the need of adequately trained law graduates was at no time in the history of human civilization greater than it is

adopted a parliamentary form of government, guaranteed certain fundamental rights, and pooled all her resources for the economic emancipation of her people."

This is strongly endorsed by the Chief Justice's Report on Legal Education and Delhi University in 1964. The faults in Indian egal education are many and they are set out in the 1964 report, and n other reports. These faults are particularized as the woeful inadequacies of staffing of Indian law schools, the comparatively low stand of large numbers of students, inadequate libraries and research, the "rote" system of instruction, the external, unsearching examination system which stresses rote learning, and the shortness of the course There is particular stress on the staffing deficiencies; for the most p law teachers are poorly paid and are frustrated by a hierarchical str ture with extremely limited promotion prospects, so that with distinguished exceptions, many of the teachers are men of poor calibre wh working with the most inadequate resources, cannot hope to work any change in the system whose woeful inadequacies have been the subjec repeated report. Many of the teachers are part-time instructors, wh have come to law teaching with no higher aim than the supplementatic of meagre income.

The hope, and the only hope, is for the universities to bre out of this wretched, vicious circle. In the Indian context, the view the Delhi Committee and other experienced observers is that the only proper course is to strengthen and greatly strengthen a very small number of law schools which would thereby become "national schools and would, it is hoped, provide examples and stimulus for other sch It is obvious that the task of getting the selected schools right is diff enough; and it is also obvious that the force of example, for a compl of reasons, will work slowly. But in my view it is not possible to er any alternative plan. I am satisfied that it is only through a revoluti legal education which must come through the universities--for in the nature of things it cannot come through the existing professional bod that stated and desired objectives so well articulated by Dean Anand, and the Chief Justice's Committee can be effected. It will call for t commitment of substantial local resources which are already scarce it therefore makes great demands on the imagination of government fixing their priorities, when there is already such great demand on resources as exist. Government has to be persuaded to look beyond existing poor state of the legal profession to the importance of a reg tion of the profession, and to realize the role it may perform. It ca o for external support, and it is notable that there has been Americar ndation interest in a number of Asian law schools, and particularly i ia, in encouraging "trail-blazing" national schools in Delhi and Benar s support should and indeed does include the provision and financing manpower in the form of visiting professors who should be men of ture experience and judgment, who are prepared to stay long enough exercise a significant influence on the development of the Asian schoo s not for a visitor to come with the object of making over an Asian hool in the likeness of his own, for that is almost certainly doomed to lure. It is for him to serve as examplar, stimulator, and generator standards and enthusiasm. I have said elsewhere that I regard it as a stake for the foundations who have committed resources to such pro- ammes to rely exclusively on American professors to participate in s work. In this area there are men from Australia, Canada, and oth veloped countries who can well be called into service and the broaden the base of experience and outlook in this way can only be beneficial.

In some parts of Asia, in India and Pakistan for example, it ely that the staffing of the university law schools will be overwhelm- gly indigenous in character, for there are men of talent, with horizon dened and standards strengthened by experience abroad, who, given e appropriate rewards, facilities, and encouragement, can do a very e job. Elsewhere, where schools are being built up from scratch, cause they are being established for the first time, it may be neces- ry to rely heavily in the first place and for some time to come on the patriate teachers. This has been the case in Malaya; it will certainl the case in Hong Kong when it establishes its law school. There are oblems here, and the University of Malaya serves as an example and warning. It was very fortunate in the recruitment of its first Dean, A. Sheridan, who came from Belfast. With great determination and th high ability, and with support from the University and from founda ons, he built up a very fine, indeed a remarkable school measured by aff, library, and academic standards. But strong political pressures ere brought to bear upon the school, and the discomfort and uncertain d to the departure of many of its able people. For a time it found its a parlous position, and threatened with the loss of much that it had chieved. It needs little demonstration to show that a good expatriate aff will not stay if conditions are uncomfortable and oppressive, and do not speak only of material conditions. There are too many good portunities for employment of good academic lawyers all over the orld. The Malaya problem has its echoes elsewhere in the world, an ould easily arise elsewhere in Asia. Government indifference and

rsimony are almost as great an evil as government pressure. Unive
ty administrations have to face tough problems: they have to protect
eir staffs against the pressures and threats of impatient, irritated,
d sometimes xenophobic governments. The faults are not always on
e side, but if law schools crumble and fall away through the resigna-
on of good academic staffs, the outlook is poor.

I have very little doubt of the importance of the role of
iversities in Asian legal development. In the case of the Indian sub-
ontinent I am wholly in agreement with the views of those who say tha
e greatest hope in generating sound and appropriate legal developme
es in legal education. Whereas in a country like Korea there is, in
fect, a gulf between the law and the people, it can only be bridged by
fecting a revolution in the minds of men, and this can only come thro
e creation of a new view of the law. To wait for this to come from t
eople at large is absurd and it must in the first place be brought to th
eople through the character, the values and the activities of the lawye
ho by their example and community role will give the people a new vi
f the law. This in turn lays great stress on the education which the
wyers themselves receive, and once again we return to the responsi
ilities of the universities.

I have not spoken of other university responsibilities in the
eld of legal development. In many parts of Asia, there has been littl
ystematic study of and writing on the local law. The existing profes-
ion is not equipped and qualified to do this, and a prime responsibilit
or such research activities, which are of obvious importance in legal
evelopment, will necessarily fall on the universities.

It seems to me that initiatives will necessarily have to com
n the first place from the universities themselves and from the gover
ents which will have to support them. The support and encourageme
f the foundations will continue to be very important. It is not likely
hat local professions and professional associations will generate a
emand for better legal education in the universities. This is so for
arious reasons: lawyers who are themselves the product of a poor
egal education, with poor professional standards, are not--except fo
he most enlightened--likely to demand any better. In some cases, fo
uite base reasons--specifically an apprehension that their privileged
osition will be threatened by an influx of locally trained men--profes
ional bodies will resist the establishment of local university schools
of law, though the reasons they may give will be couched in other and

er, though quite bogus, terms. This is not to argue that the sup-
of the profession should not be enlisted: if it can be obtained the
s are easier. But the organized profession must not be allowed to
rpose a veto upon the establishment of schools whose creation and
blishment may be indispensable to the furtherance of legal develop-
t.

In some parts of Asia, as I see it, the problem of legal
ation lies in dealing with long established indigenous schools of
and in remaking them, for the task cannot be described in terms
smaller magnitude. In other parts, the task is one of starting
n scratch, and this, it may be, is easier, though it is full of
lems. It is for the universities of Asia, in their faculties of law,
aintain close contacts with the great established law schools of the
ld. Men who, as graduate students, see excellence elsewhere, will
t to battle against woeful inadequacy at home, at least if they are
n some encouragement. What is required all over developing Asia
he acceptance of a dynamic, functional view of the law and of the
d for a legal profession which has a strong sense of responsibility
he society in which it exists. In the task of building this essentially
view of law and lawyers, there is no doubt that the universities
e a decisive role.

Cowen's Presentation

Before outlining the main points of his paper, DEAN COWEN l that he had had experience with legal education in India, Africa, degree in Malaysia, and most recently in Hong Kong. He consetly felt "a measure of commitment, not to say a measure of frus-on" toward the matter.

In summarizing his paper, Dean Cowen stressed the dangers neralizing about Asian countries, where cultures differed so widely where legal systems could be based upon civil, common, or indigeno traditions, Following upon Dr. Romulo's comments about the over-ly of lawyers, and the need to reshape educational systems to local irements, Dean Cowen suggested that quality was of equally great ortance on the Asian scene: legal education generally is weak, par-arly in India, where it is "as bad as it could be." The questions of *ity*, *appropriateness*, and *supply* all are critical in relation to the erally unsatisfactory state...of legal education, in Asia."

Dean Cowen stressed that the tasks imposed on the lawyer in development process were terribly testing. This relates, among r things, to the increasing complexity of the administrative machine need to instill a concern for the rule of law as an orderly and just cess; and the need to uphold and espouse just but unpopular causes re necessary.

To prepare the law and lawyers for this vital role through the chinery of legal education, the universities clearly are responsible making the principal effort. The law in Asian countries, exemplifie ndia and Korea, is customarily seen as a symbol of tyranny, an hority to be employed in order to "fix" problems and difficulties. her than being a lofty recourse and aid, the law is simply a tool to used for one's own ends. Consequently, the legal profession and yers have fallen into contempt, being seen as sources of authority power rather than as active participants in "the whole development cess." Yet without properly trained, liberal lawyers, Dean Cowen ued that "the whole development process is likely to go bad."

The low state of the law and the legal profession in India is l recognized by Indian intellectuals themselves. It is not the biased gment of an outside observer, but a problem of intense local concern tem of law and legal education be reviewed an is no other possible cure in India except the establishment of al model "National Schools," as examples of excellence to be ted gradually by other institutions throughout the country. For the resources of foreign foundations definitely are needed, and g professors are required to stimulate new ideas and departures. er, this should not be an exclusively American operation; the rces of Australasia, Canada, and other countries with developed systems should be employed as well.

Regardless of the wisdom of their conception and organization, egal education programs face many difficulties in Asia. In Singapore ample, where a very good start was made years ago, government ures and an element of local xenophobia almost destroyed the effort; ourage and perseverance sustained the law school program to its nt more healthy state. Also, there will be professional resistance provements in legal education from within the profession itself; by those whose own training was inferior and who would feel ened by a well-trained incoming generation.

Professor Cowen concluded by stressing again that legal edu- is vital to the development process, yet in general is in a weak in Asian countries. It must be the universities who take the lead eloping legal education for its broadest contribution.

ssion

DR. WILLIAMS opened discussion by endorsing Dean Cowen's ents about the potential role of foundations, and cited The Asia ation's recent support of the new Regional Law Association for Asia e Western Pacific. This new Association, comprised of leading rs, members of the judiciary, professors, and Bar Association rs, has clearly stated that one of its main concerns is with the f law in national development. Over the years the Foundation has rted legal research, training, and the development of bar associa- and has identified itself with the kind of development which Dean n felt was so necessary.

DR. ROMULO particularly appreciated the speaker's comment egal education should primarily be the province of universities. view is shared in the Philippines, and the University of the Philippine ge of Law is one of Asia's finest. Similarly, a Legal Research Cente University is undertaking a wide range of studies, and through its nt efforts to revise the Administrative Code, is in fact "reorganizing ilippine Government." Dr. Romulo expressed his gratitude to sia Foundation for help given both to the College of Law and the Research Center. He added that while the Philippines had indeed ed the saturation point in the supply of lawyers, they had not enced the same difficulty of low quality as in other Asian countries.

DR. STERLING agreed with previously stated opinions about portance of law as an agent of social change and reorganization, served that in most nations this process has been "directed inward, rned with national problems rather than international conditions. ndered whether the demands on legal education in the national were not so severe as to require considerably more and longer l training in producing lawyers able to contribute to the overall opment effort.

Dean Cowen replied, "Definitely, yes." He suggested that the sh system itself, where law is an undergraduate study, is inadequate hat such a system is even less adequate for a developing society. kes no sense, he suggested, to believe that a high school graduate e transformed into a socially aware and responsible lawyer in three s. It may be quite a different thing for engineers, agronomists, and technicians, but lawyers certainly need a substantial base of liberal ation in government, politics, etc. If the seven-year programs of nited States are too long, at least four or perhaps even five years sensible training period in developing Asian countries.

In this connection, MR. STEINBERG noted the importance of a's Graduate School of Law. This program is required of all lawyer es, etc., before their professional participation in society. One of School's important intentions is to bring the Korean legal system into act with other legal systems through the exchange of personnel, pub- ions, and advanced courses. The School has been supported by the ean Government and in part by The Asia Foundation. He suggested both Korean officials and the Foundation took a broad view of the law legal training, seeing them as part of the development of society as ole--in Max Weber's terms, the movement from a traditional social em to a rationalized, bureaucratic system.

Mr. Steinberg cited the new Asian Law Librarians Associatio ntly formed at a conference in the Philippines, as a good example of onal cooperation in the field of law. He also mentioned the work of eral American organizations, including the Continuing Education of the Bar and its cooperation with the Japan Bar Association, as fu examples of beneficial international cooperation in law.

In response to a question of the relevance of legal trai to economic development programs, Dean Cowen agreed that leg cation should include a wide range of subject matters. However, warned against the assumption that "a few courses" in law could use to non-lawyers. Proper legal education cannot be gotten in " bits." Such piecemeal training, or general "panoramic" courses persons going into public administration, government service, et could be both pernicious and dangerous. If legal education is to undertaken at all, it should be deep, rigorous, and extensive.

DR. LI stated his agreement with Dean Cowen's gener about the common Asian perception of the law as hostile and auth He stressed that institutionalized law is an alien phenomenon in imported from the West. Chinese society, for example, had lon ruled by ethical codes rather than formalized law. The codified twentieth century China became simply a patchwork of parts from ous European and American sources. Very few persons, includi intellectuals, understood what the law was on any particular poin Dr. Li suggested that in Japan, despite its high level of industria development, the rule of law in rural areas is still weak. Tradit and family ties probably are still dominant. Consequently, he su that a fundamental factor in legal education in Asia should be "ed of the masses"--an attempt to instil broad knowledge of what the about, what it demands, and what it bestows. Dr. Li suggested recent cultural upheaval in China exemplifies how a government, comprehensive, all-permeating organizations, attempts to chang tudes at the popular level.

From the top of the system, in the law schools, Dr. L stressed the importance of research as a basis for legal reform rejuvenation. This involves a need for top Asian intellectuals to take creative work, ground-breaking investigations on legal need the relationship of legal systems to social institutions and develo In this connection, Dr. Li stressed that the research and trainin grams at the University of the Philippines are of special importa and that legal education represents one of the most fruitful poten

Dean Cowen responded by suggesting that Dr. Li was the "rule of law" in a broader sense than he had first intended; h paper dealt with only the technical aspects of the law and legal tr the legal guarantees and methods included in any training progra this field. He added that Professor Li's discussion of the "comm acceptance" of law within a society was "an important corrective his argument. However, what is really meant by "educating the in terms of the law? How is it done? Dean Cowen suggested tha best method was simply to provide proper legal education throug universities, thereby producing lawyers and legal scholars who gain the confidence of the common man, and "build bridges" to t people. In this connection, the initiative must come from the un sities, with their pre-eminent concern with high standards rathe mere techniques.

Dean Cowen drew the dichotomy between the extremes general principles and techniques--either one can dominate in a education program. What is needed, he suggested, was mutual dependence, a deep concern with broad general issues infused w demand for attainment of technical skills. To do this, a broad education is needed, and "teaching the boys" in college about the issues of society is a prerequisite for later professional training

A question was raised by MR. KLAUSNER about the m effective mechanisms for encouraging lawyers to recognize and their role as agents of social change. How was it possible to es a more constructive dialogue between the lawyer and those invol the problems of economic and social development? What types pressures and resources can be brought to bear upon them in thi effort--local, bilateral, or regional cooperative mechanisms?

MR. ROBINSON raised the corollary problem, the co need for legal educators to remain true to their profession and come too preoccupied with social change and social development In establishing a program of legal education, a university "must the profession with us," in order to assure the acceptance of the graduates by the local legal profession. The professional, "tec training" aspects of legal education cannot be overlooked. Ever United Kingdom, it is difficult to assure the acceptability of uni

than ideally would be desirable. At the same time, however, prep
tion can always be made for research, library development, etc.,
steps toward an eventually broader role.

MR. JOHNSON suggested that perhaps General Romulo
been too modest in not mentioning one important program by the U
sity of the Philippines toward gaining acceptance of the law throug
society, while simultaneously raising professional standards. Fo
last three years, the UP law school has had a program of "continu
legal education" in various provincial centers, where local lawye
judges, etc., have participated in week-long seminars for in-serv
refresher training and discussion of issues. These programs als
provide feed-back to the UP law school about the problems and int
of the legal profession throughout the Philippines.

Dean Cowen acknowledged the importance of this UP pr
but suggested that it is the structure of the initial legal education
gram which is crucial. He acknowledged the importance of Mr. F
comments about the need for the goodwill of legal professionals,
university "cannot achieve much without it"; he agreed that while
early days a legal education program probably must compromise
technical training, it can be increasingly broadened and improved
grows.

Commenting further on the relationship of legal practiti
and legal education, Dean Cowen suggested that at the level of con
ing education programs, such as had been described for the Phili
there was a role for the practitioner to play. But in the undergra
schools providing initial education, it is incumbent upon a univers
obtain the best possible professional teachers who can sort out int
lectual issues, inspire and challenge students, and not simply pro
"how to do it" courses. Like most things, starting a law school r
quires a "judicious and appropriate admixture" of the practical an
scholarly approaches.

Speaking to the issue of regional, multilateral, or even
lateral cooperation, Dean Cowen suggested the need to be very ca
about encouraging too much of it during the early stages of legal t
ing programs; the diverse local traditions and problems of Asian

soon with regional cooperation could be "to generalize the problen
Asian countries out of existence."

DR. QURESHI commented briefly on Pakistan's experie
legal education. He suggested that it has been as bad as, or perh
even worse than, India's. Personally, he strongly wished to avo
producing mere legal practitioners, but the pressures within Pak
society today are that education must pay immediate economic di
and only practitioners get this kind of pay-off. He endorsed Dr.
point that, as in China, the legal systems of Pakistan and India h
come from outside. The law was seen simply as a means for obt
ing certain particular ends, to be manipulated and used rather th
guide and provide justice. This, he believes, is primarily becau
the law "is not rooted in the morality of the people themselves, "
this fundamental problem is of major concern in Pakistan.

Dr. Williams took up Dean Cowen's point about the im
tance of "educating the boys" as the basic step in developing a pr
legal education system, but suggested that perhaps the problem b
not with the boys themselves, but with the deans. Is the right vi
of the function and nature of the law being generated and the prop
inspiration given at the professorial level? Dean Cowen agreed
the importance of such concern.

The closing comment was offered by DR. THOMPSON,
spoke of the need for both general awareness and popular apprec
of the law in Asia, and for early inspiration regarding the law a
youth and undergraduates. Is there not, he asked, an important
for "the grand simplifier, " the person who can write on legal ma
for the general public, who can inspire youthful interest in the la
among young men as did Pound, Holmes, and Cardozo?

NEW PATTERNS OF INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN THE NATURAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCES

S. L. Chien

The subject on which I am going to speak this morning is
New Patterns of Inter-University Cooperation in the Natural and
hysical Sciences." During the past two and half years, two new pat-
erns of inter-university cooperation, namely, the joint summer
cience seminars program and the science research centers program,
ave been worked out by several leading universities in Taiwan with th
ssistance of Academia Sinica and financial support from the National
ouncil on Science Development (NCSD), The Asia Foundation, the
hina Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, and the
ouncil for International Economic Cooperation and Development
CIECD). The main objective of the summer science seminars is to
pgrade the quality of university faculty members while that of the
cience research centers is to promote research and strengthen the
raduate training program. In the following paragraphs I shall descri
o you: (1) the problems of education in Taiwan; (2) the role played by
he National Council on Science Development in the long range develop
ent of science in Taiwan; (3) the summer science seminars jointly
ponsored by the universities, and (4) the science research centers
ormed through the cooperation of universities.

Right after the restoration of Taiwan to China following the
econd World War, there were only one university and three junior
olleges with a total enrollment of slightly over two thousand students
oday we have 31 universities, colleges, and junior colleges with a
otal enrollment of nearly eighty thousand. During a period of 21 year
he enrollment has increased 40 times. This rapid expansion in highe
ducation has brought with it the familiar problems of teaching staff
hortages and lack of physical facilities. In certain fields, such as
athematics, physics, and biology, to mention but a few, there are
imply not enough trained persons of the right caliber to fill the vaca
cademic posts. In other disciplines, such as agriculture and engi-
eering, the demand of other governmental and private institutions ha
aken away many competent persons who would otherwise be available
or academic appointments. Also to be noted is the annual loss of abo
, 000 university graduates who go abroad for advanced study and do n

With a view to improving this situation, the late Dr. Hu Sh then President of the Academia Sinica, proposed to the Chinese Gove ment in 1958 a plan for the establishment of a "National Council on Science Development." His proposal was accepted by the Governme and the National Council on Science Development was established in February, 1959. The main aim of the Council is the financing of lon range projects for the development of science in the Republic of Chi The word "science" is used here in its broadest sense to include als social sciences and humanities. The members of the council consis of representatives of the Academia Sinica and the Ministry of Educat The President of the Academia Sinica is the Chairman of the Counci and the Minister of Education is its Vice Chairman. The Council's financial resources are derived from the government and supplemen by funds made available from other sources. The Asia Foundation i one of its strong supporters. The regular budget of the Council for current fiscal year is NT$60, 000, 000. 00 which is equivalent to US$1, 500, 000. 00.

Up to the year 1964, the main undertakings of the Council been along the following lines:

(1) Establishment of National Research Chairs and Visiting Professorships at leading universities and colleges;

(2) Grant of research subsidies to competent faculty member and research workers;

(3) Fellowship programs for faculty and research staff memb

(4) Institutional grants to universities and research institutio for the improvement of their physical facilities;

(5) Institutional grants for faculty housing, and

(6) Financing the publication of technical journals.

During the 5-year period 1959-1964 the Council made total appropri tions of NT$312, 000, 000. 00 which is equivalent to US$7, 800, 000. 0 Because of the broad scope of its work, there perhaps have been bu limited visible results. However, it is also certain that this progr parity between salary and cost of living. It has therefore achieved ood stabilizing effect on the morale of the learned professors.

Over the years the universities and colleges have tried ious means to solve the problem of teaching staff shortages, or at st to alleviate the situation. The methods employed consisted of: sending faculty members abroad for research and study; (2) inviting ting professors from abroad; (3) recruiting new faculty members n abroad, and (4) providing graduate training in our own universities first two methods have been very successful. With financial suppor n various sources, we have sent large numbers of faculty members oad to further their studies. National Taiwan University alone has t nearly 400 over the years. With few exceptions, they all returned n fruitful results. For the current year, we have enlisted the vices of forty-odd visiting professors. The third method has not n as successful. Only a small number of our graduates return from oad to join our faculty each year. The average number per year is or National Taiwan University. During the past few years we have centrated our efforts on the fourth method, namely, the expansion strengthening of our graduate schools. Special emphasis has been l on the natural and physical sciences, as they are basic for the dy of agriculture, engineering, and medicine. In order to make ximum use of equipment and to share the services of faculty member research workers, cooperation among universities and between versities and research institutions is especially desirable.

In the summer of 1964, a new pattern of inter-university operation in the natural and physical sciences was initiated. With ancial aid from The Asia Foundation and the National Council on ence Development, three educational and research institutions--the ademia Sinica, National Taiwan University, and National Tsinghua iversity--jointly sponsored a program of summer seminars on thematics, physics, and biology. Twelve visiting lecturers were ited from the United States to lecture and to lead in the discussions the seminars. They came from American universities and research titutions and all are scholars of Chinese origin. A selected group of faculty members and 50 graduate students from universities and leges all over the island participated in the seminars. The mathetics seminar was held on the campus of National Taiwan University; physics seminar on the campus of National Tsinghua University; and biology seminar at the Institute of Botany of the Academia Sinica.

cturers and the participants. In addition to discussions on special pics, lectures on fundamental concepts and recent developments re also given. In a short period of 8 weeks (July 1 - Aug. 31, 1964), e participants had the opportunity of consolidating their understand- g of the basic concepts as well as bringing up to date their knowledge a special field of interest. A number of public lectures were also ven for the general audience. These seminars and lectures were ceived with great enthusiasm and proved to be a success. The pro- am not only benefited the graduate students but also served as a fresher course for the faculty members. During the summertime, ere are better chances for securing the services of Chinese scholars ho teach at universities abroad. It is also the ideal time for faculty embers and graduate students of the universities and colleges in aiwan to participate in these seminars and to attend lectures. The ponsoring institutions, therefore, resolved that their cooperative forts should be continued and the scope of the summer seminars for e succeeding years should be enlarged to include other disciplines as ell.

In the summer of 1965, five science seminars were jointly rganized by the three sponsoring institutions. The two new discipline dded were chemistry and engineering science. In the 1964 program, hemistry was not included because the U. S. Educational Foundation i e Republic of China (USEF/C) operated a summer institute in chemi t that time. In 1965 the U. S. Educational Foundation discontinued its ummer science institute program and shifted its financial support to e joint summer science seminar program of the Academia Sinica an e two national universities. The 1965 Summer Science Seminars we herefore financially supported by The Asia Foundation, the National Council on Science Development, and the U. S. Educational Foundatio With the exception of the physics seminar, which was held on the cam f National Tsinghua University, all the seminars were held on the ampus of National Taiwan University. A large number of applicants pplied for participation, but only 378, which consisted of 269 faculty members and 109 graduate students, were accepted because of lack of space. The number of visiting lecturers increased to twenty-six, of whom two were Americans. For the current year, 1966, five summe science seminars were also conducted. The number of visiting lectu nvited and the number of participants accepted were approximately t same as in the previous year but the biology seminar was replaced b on economics. The biology seminar will be restored next summer.

ur regular summer sessions to make it possible for the partici-
to earn some credits.

The summer science seminars described in the preceding
graphs laid their emphasis on the natural and physical sciences.
were, and will be, conducted jointly by the Academia Sinica and
vo national universities. They represent, therefore, a new pattern
er-university cooperation in the natural and physical sciences.
hope that, in due course, these seminars will develop into inter-
nal seminars so that scientists from different countries may get
her and discuss subjects of common interest.

Now, I shall present another new pattern of inter-university
eration in the natural and physical sciences; namely, the science
arch centers. With the idea of further improving the quality of our
ning and research programs, the National Council on Science
lopment mapped out, in January 1965, a four-year scientific man-
r development program which led to the establishment of five
arch centers in science and engineering and a sixth one in agri-
re.

The main objectives of the scientific manpower development
ram proposed by the National Council on Science Development are:

(1) To provide the country with a steady supply of competent scientists and highly trained technological manpower;

(2) To reduce the exodus of talented youths and scientists from the country.

der to achieve these objectives, the following measures were
n:

(1) Establishment of five Science Research Centers:

Five science research centers were set up in July 1965. They are:

(a) The Mathematics Research Center:

(b) The Physics Research Center:

Sponsored by National Tsinghua University in cooperation with the Academia Sinica and National Taiwan University;

(c) The Chemistry Research Center:

Sponsored by National Taiwan University in cooperation with the Academia Sinica;

(d) The Biology Research Center:

Sponsored by the Academia Sinica in cooperation with National Taiwan University;

(e) The Engineering Science Research Center:

Sponsored by Provincial Cheng Kung University in cooperation with National Taiwan University and National Chiaotung University.

In each center there is a director to take overall charge of the center's operations and a program committee of five to seven members responsible for the planning of research and training programs and the selection of research personnel. Each center also has a number of advisors.

The budget needed for the establishment of these five centers and their related activities was estimated at a total of NT$125,000,000 (US$3,125,000) for the first four years. Of this amount, 80% (NT$100,000,000--US$2,500,000) are grants from the Council for International Economic Cooperation and Development and 20% is from the National Council on Science Development. Through the National Council, The Asia Foundation and the China Foundation also helped in the program by providing visiting professorships. These five centers have a total of 220 graduate students.

(3) The Establishment of the Agricultural Research Center:

The Agricultural Research Center was established in January 1966 with National Taiwan University as its sponsoring institution. The cooperating institutions are Taiwan Provincial Agricultural Research Institute and Provincial Chung Hsing University. Its annual budget is set at NT$12, 500, 000 (US$312, 500), of which NT$10, 000, 000 (US$250, 000) or 80% are grants from the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction (JCRR) and NT$2, 500, 000 (US$62, 500) or 20% is from the National Council. The center has at present 68 graduate students.

The idea of setting up these research centers was first suggested by Dr. S. S. Chern, member of Academia Sinica, member of the U. S. National Academy of Sciences, and Professor of Mathematics at the University of California. It received strong support from members attending the first and the second joint meetings of the Chinese and American Committees on Sino-American Science Cooperation. These meetings were sponsored by the U. S. National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council and the Academia Sinica for deliberation on ways and means of promoting science cooperation between the two countries. The first joint meeting was held at the Academia Sinica in April, 1964 and the second was held at the American Academy of Sciences-National Research Council in February 1965.

(3) Sino-American Cooperation in the Field of Humanities and Social Sciences:

The third meeting of the Chinese and American Committees on Science Cooperation was held at Taipei in June, 1966. The American Delegation was headed by Dr. Frederick Burkhardt, President of the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS). In a four-day conference, both delegations agreed on a number of general and specific resolutions. These resolutions may be classified into four categories:

(a) Initiating joint research programs from which ultimately a joint institute will be formed to serve as a center for the collaboration of scholars.

to provide a better environment for study by American sociologists.

(c) Joint effort to improve teaching and research conditions in Taiwan.

(d) Exchange of materials.

Immediately after the meeting, a number of Chinese scholars were invited by President Wang Shih-chieh of Academia Sinic to form a Council. An Executive Committee with thirteen members was then formed to carry out the above-mentioned resolutions. For the first year, the National Council on Science Development has appropriated NT$5, 000, 000 (US$125, 000) for the development of humanistic studies and social sciences.

The establishment of the above-mentioned research centers several advantages. Firstly, the participating institutions pool resources, both manpower and physical facilities. Secondly, ication in the procurement of expensive equipment is avoided. dly, the graduate students may do their thesis work at a research tution and take their courses at one of the universities. In this wa Chemistry Research Center started its Ph. D. program last fall; Physics Research Center will start its Ph. D. program next spring; the Biology Research Center and the Mathematics Research Center also contemplating the starting of their Ph. D. programs in the nea re. If these programs prove to be successful, we shall have a new ce of supply of faculty members. Since these science research ers are formed through cooperation among the universities they resent another new pattern of inter-university cooperation in the ral and physical sciences.

These two patterns of inter-university cooperation in the ral and physical sciences described in the preceding paragraphs a attempts made by the universities in my country. Similar pattern have been employed by universities in other countries at other tim is is the case, I would be most appreciative of being so informed. ir experience will be most helpful to us.

In the next few years, we shall concentrate our efforts on faculty members abroad for further studies. If our efforts are su cessful, our science faculties will be greatly strengthened by the addition of new faculty members and new laboratories, procureme of new equipment and a budgetary increase for research. The imp conditions for teaching and research will in turn attract more of o graduates who have completed their studies abroad to return and j our faculties. Then we shall be able to turn out more and better graduates in science to meet, at least in part, the growing demand our industries.

A recent manpower resources study of Taiwan made by Council for International Economic Cooperation and Development indicated that over the period from 1965 to 1969 there will be a ser shortage of university graduates in the disciplines of science, engi neering, and medicine. If we succeed in the discipline of science, will be easier for us to tackle the problems of medicine and engine

Before I conclude, I wish to take this opportunity to than The Asia Foundation for its continued interest in our program and the privilege of making this report. Your comments and advice wi greatly appreciated.

NEW PATTERNS OF INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN THE NATURAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCES

Dr. Chien's Presentation

Following his introduction by the Chairman, Dr. Chie
the text of his paper.

Discussion

The Chairman (Mr. Hoover) explained that the Counci
International Cooperation and Development of which Dr. Chien s
is not international in the usual sense, but was set up by the Nat
Government in order to channel and coordinate international ass
and investment. Dr. Chien's comments have brought out the pa
binational relationships with the U. S. under these programs and
haps it would now be interesting to examine the pattern with refe
to potential regional programs within and between Asian countri

MR. EILERS commented that the example of science d
ment exemplified in the Taiwan experience had influenced develo
elsewhere. At a recent meeting in Malaysia to consider establis
of a Penang Center for Science and Mathematics under SEAMES,
earlier mentioned by Dr. Romulo, the model of binational coope
in Taiwan was a most useful example that may be transferable to
Southeast Asian area. As regards science curriculum revision,
Nuffield, the United States, and the Australian approaches were
sidered, along with the fundamental question of whether any outs
system or combination of systems could be superimposed. The
clusion was positive. Through training and retraining of teacher
research, summer seminars, and other programs over a long pe
science development could be achieved in the Southeast Asia are
lines similar to the Taiwan model.

DR. QURESHI noted that the shocking aspect of the hig
percentage of Taiwan students not returning after foreign study s
be examined. The figures seem much higher than for other Asia
countries, certainly as compared with Pakistan, and it is pertine
to ask the cause.

Dr. Chien replied that the answer is complex, as is th
problem. Low pay scales compared to U. S. standards decidedly
influence returnees considering the alternatives between governm

to Taiwan perhaps only half of them could be provided jobs. Of t one-half, moreover, a significant number could not be absorbed as to utilize fully their foreign training. The complexity of the p lem is exemplified further by the frequent lack of specialized lab tory or library facilities adequate for the highly specialized retu who wishes to pursue his work among colleagues similarly engag

DR. ROMULO, sharing the concern for the large numb of Chinese students remaining in the United States, asked why the salary scale should be so low in a country like Taiwan which is e hibiting such marked and admirable economic development.

Dr. Chien replied that in Taiwan the salary scales of t public universities, both national and provincial, are linked to ci service grades and it is most difficult to argue for exceptional tr ment for the academics.

DR. WILLIAMS commented that perhaps we should hon recognize the fault of the United States, where salaries are risin where Chinese students have so often performed brilliantly. Des this brainpower loss, however, we might also note that Taiwan is able to contribute outstandingly to regional needs elsewhere. The is even a Taiwan center servicing African development needs, wi twelve or more African countries represented in the student body specializing in land reform and agricultural development.

MR. HITCH indicated the great importance of fixing sa scales for academic people distinctly separate from civil servant University of California is a public institution, he said, "but we c not begin to staff our campuses were it not for an entirely separa salary system from State grades of pay." Dr. Chien responded t the government has taken steps to improve university salaries. research grant of 1200 Taiwan dollars monthly for all faculty with need for application or competition is an example. The difficulty psychological. Professors do not consider these grants as part o their salary, and the feeling of being underpaid continues.

MR. PIKE pointed out that in Taiwan there is difficulty creating specialized incentives for it is a society strongly commit to egalitarian and uniform salary treatment. But many incentive alleviate the apparent stringency of the Taiwan academic scale. should also be noted that the non-returning Chinese scholars fro U. S. are making short-term contributions through one year, one semester, or even summer assignments in Taiwan. In some ca these brief experiences lead to a more continuing interest. Part the solution to these problems undoubtedly relates to the creatio good graduate facilities and certainly the key to this process lies involving government and all sectors of society so that the value research is evident from the outset. In this stage the universiti cannot act alone; they must join with many other national units.

DR. THOMPSON said that perhaps this subject could b from regional study on a comparative basis between those countr struggling with the difficult problem and those who have partially solved it. Thailand certainly has similar problems. A study co examine the feasibility of separating university salaries from ot government salaries and the influence of different age groups in problem, and would logically explore the U. S. experience where benefits have also been found not psychologically satisfying. Th American situation should also be relevant and could be included world study of the question, as pointed to the Asian problem.

Referring to the Japanese situation, DR. OKOCHI poi out that many young scholars have wanted to stay in the United St after their study terms expire, usually bringing their families fr Japan if they make the major decision to stay in the United State manently. Although this is one form of international cooperatio problems arise from the standpoint of the Japanese universities affected. Shortages occur in teaching staff. While salary consi tions are important, a more basic reason is influential in the de of many of the more specialized people. In such fields as bioche or solid state physics, returnees cannot develop their research in Japan. Such specialists must be grouped and in some instanc is only feasible now in the United States. It is natural and, in fa important that such groups be formed and these scholarly needs young people must be appreciated.

Dr. Romulo noted that the Philippines' experience sho a continuing fight must be made to achieve and retain the distinct between academic and civil service salary scales. In 1962 it wa similar links in Asia so that the affluence and technological advance of Japan may be shared in the area?

In response to Dr. Romulo's repeated suggestion for incr Japanese participation in regional cooperation Dr. Okochi explained "In principle, of course, Japan would respond positively." Tradito however, he said that Japanese links have been to the United States, England, Germany, and France. In historical context, Japanese sc ly drive comes partly from these countries and this tradition stands a temporary barrier to development of formal regional cooperation our Asian neighbors. Among Japanese scholars the interest in regi cooperation is strong, but the formalities of finance and other detai have not been evolved. Gradually, the thinking of high officials will become more receptive so that in the near future Japan will undoubt set up binational regional cooperation in Asia. If American univers and foundations can assist such cooperation it would help greatly. this time many German universities have ambitious individual prog in which they wish to involve Japan, but Japan should consider as fo most the possibility of developing cooperative relationships in Asia itself.

DR. KIRK noted that the question of salary scales may le one astray, when it is probably the questions of availability of rese facilities, like-minded colleagues, and recognition that are paramo In one sense, all universities are paying the necessary price for sh ing emphasis from teaching to research.

In response to the question of the regional benefits of the research centers of Taiwan, Dr. Chien stated that they can be shar by others, often on an expense sharing basis. This is now being do in some fields.

MR. HOOVER noted that the modest scale of the Taiwan nuclear facility at Tsing Hua University, for instance, is an examp of an installation with more direct relevance to most Asian needs t the elaborate facilities in the U. S.

Another participant said that exchanges should not be tho of as flowing in only one direction, from the United States. There many examples of mutual benefit, such as the bamboo research an

MR. FLEISHHACKER indicated that the 50% figure of the Taiwan students who could not be adequately employed even if they did return is impressive. It suggests the need for a study of control or a reevaluation of the scholarship programs. Dr. Chien replied that this subject has received serious consideration, but that the government has so far decided that it would not be desirable to limit the number of students going abroad.

FOURTH SESSION

December 20, afternoon

Chairman: Leonard C. Overton, Representative, Vietnam
Rapporteurs: Douglas P. Murray, Representative, Singapore
Louis Connick, Representative, Laos

Papers by: I. H. Qureshi, Vice-Chancellor,
University of Karachi

The Humanities in Asian Universities

Charles J. Hitch, Vice President for Administration,
University of California

The Role of the University in Research and Public Service

THE HUMANITIES IN ASIAN UNIVERSITIES

I. H. Qureshi

I owe it to you to say right in the beginning that my experi-
ce in Asia is limited to only two countries, India and Pakistan. Ever
these two countries conditions have changed so rapidly since inde-
ndence that it would be wrong on my part to presume that my conclu-
ons arrived at through my experience in Pakistan should also be valic
India. So far as other countries in Asia are concerned, they differ
widely that any attempt at generalisation would be futile. My remar
erefore, relate mainly to Pakistan. If there are other Asian countrie
ere conditions are somewhat similar, even then differences in outloo
d tradition could play a sufficiently significant role to vitiate the
lidity of my remarks.

The position of the humanities in a university is closely
lated to the functions that are assigned to it in a society. When
arning was tied to the apron strings of religion, the place of pride
as given to theological studies. With greater secularization of the
ciety universities shed some of their monastic outlook and began to
come strongholds of liberal thought and philosophy. It was indeed
ring this period that the humanities had the pride of place in the
rricula of universities. During those days, even though education
as not without its mundane rewards, it was considered that the
dening of the horizon of human knowledge and vision was in itself
goal worthy of pursuit. Scholarship, therefore, was devoted to the
ravelling of philosophic mysteries and the discovery of the beauties
ideas, imagery, and expression in literature.

The dedication with which scholars worked to achieve these
als was still a legacy of the monastic past of the university when
eligion had created emotional ties with the effort to pursue truth that
ould lead to human salvation. It is true that during the period of
beral education the goal was no longer the salvation of the soul but
e enlightenment of the mind. Nevertheless, the traditions of dedi-
ation were not lost. Indeed, they still persist, because the advance-
ent of scientific knowledge is a part of the enlightenment of the huma
ind.

The unravelling of the mysteries of nature through science
as enlarged man's capacity to exploit them for his material benefit.

econd, which follows inevitably, is the application of this knowledge the creation of a technology for the advancement of material com- rt and power.

This progress has been continuous in the West, but it has een interrupted in most of the Asian countries. Today university ducation in Asia does not deal with ideas or even disciplines which ave evolved naturally out of the older volume of knowledge as they id in Europe. The ancient Asian places of learning, their methods, nd the content of their knowledge were all pushed into the background nstead, new institutions came into existence which dealt with the new nowledge gained in the West. They also borrowed the methodology volved in the West. In many countries like mine own, there was, in he beginning, resistance to these ideas and methods.

This resistance was neither totally unexpected nor irration here was a system of education existing which had been satisfying th emands of the soul, the heart, and the mind in a satisfactory manne n many countries, particularly once again in mine, this old system a hat stage was not so diametrically opposed or alien to the new knowl- dge as is sometimes believed. After all, apart from theology, the isciplines that were taught in the Muslim colleges and universities vere logic, philosophy, medicine, and mathematics. Essentially, hese were based upon the works of some of the famous Greek author Aristotle and Plato, Euclid and Ptolemy were as familiar to Muslim scholars as they were to their European counterparts. Indeed, it wa nitially through the Arab translations of the classical philosophers, mathematicians, astronomers, and physicians that the West began to understand the importance of Greece. Even theology has certain poi of contact because of the common Semitic origin of Islam and Christi So far as legal thinking was concerned, which in Islam was basically rooted in religion, it had evolved a methodology which was by no mea llogical or unintelligible from the point of view of the West.

Therefore, if it were simply the question of the impact of Western knowlege upon Islamic thinking and if there had been a gradual assimilation of Western knowledge and consequent transform tion of Islamic learning, the results perhaps would have been differe from what they have been in actual fact because of the manner in whi [illegible] introduced by the British in the subcontinent.

made in the direction of assimilation. Indeed, Macaulay, who responsible for the introduction of the English language and tern knowledge in the subcontinent, had a thorough contempt both Hindu and Islamic learning without being familiar with either of . Under his scheme, therefore, there could be no question of milation. He was so certain of the superiority of Western knowl- and culture that he expressed the hope that not one idolator would ain in Bengal within thirty years after the introduction of the new em of education. Simultaneously with the introduction of this em there was an intensification of missionary effort which used ew concepts in astronomy as a major argument against the tradi- l Hindu notions of cosmology and the Muslim ideas of the universe ally derived from Greek philosophers.

The new education, therefore, created an aversion in the ls of the people who gradually took to it mainly because of the oppor- ies of employment which it created. As English became the official uage, a person who devoted himself to the older system of education to be content with extreme poverty throughout his life. The fact many did choose this poverty deliberately with full knowledge of sacrifice that their choice entailed is a remarkable tribute to their lty to learning and culture.

Gradually the benefits of the new education became greater more students were attracted to the new institutions. It must, ever, be remembered that the main motivation came from a desire economic benefit. In other words, the new education was a means n end, the end being a comfortable position, maybe a clerkship or bordinate government post, not a love of knowledge for its own e, and this attitude became so deeply engrained in the minds of the lligentsia that no room was left for an emotional attachment to vledge for its own sake.

With this background it is not difficult to understand the ation as it exists today in Pakistan. This tendency to look upon cation as a mere instrument for material advancement has found lip in the rapid economic development of several Asian countries; ticularly if there has been a divorce with the past traditions of rning. With perhaps the sole exception of Japan, Asian economies in a process of development. Similarly almost everywhere in Asia these countries, modern knowledge is merely an instrument for aterial betterment and is generally acquired solely for that purpose. nd because a developing economy creates demands for personnel quipped with modern techniques useful in the building up of a viable d prosperous economy, attention is naturally turned towards the quisition of these techniques rather than liberal education, and the ster an economy develops the greater is the need of personnel and, erefore, the more lucrative are the positions which are available r properly trained men and women.

In such a situation only the demands created by rapid econor evelopment tend to be met and attention remains rivetted to avenues ading to acquisition of technical training. In an atmosphere like this e humanities are neglected and there is little attraction left in them r those who have the natural desire of establishing themselves well life. The entire society cultivates a purely utilitarian outlook on ducation and governments tend to adopt policies which may not directl un counter to the cause of humanities but which seldom help the promotion of interest in disciplines not directly and immediately concerne ith economic growth. The environment thus gets saturated with a ias in favour of applied sciences and technology, but, because pure ciences are looked upon as accessories to technology, they do not uffer so greatly. The requirements of development also create a narket for the social scientist, especially the economist, the sociolo- ist, and, to a smaller degree, the political scientist. So far as dis- iplines which have only a humanistic value, like literature and hilosophy, are concerned, students begin to lose interest in them nd even begin to question their utility. One cannot blame young men nd women for their indifference to the humanities when the general raze in a developing economy is for securing the amenities of life nd material advancement.

The result of all this is that the teaching of humanities eceives little public or private support. The departments in humani- ies are numerically the weakest in the universities of Pakistan becau hey starve for students. This turns into a vicious circle. The uni- ersities bravely go on maintaining a cadre of teachers for some of he unpopular subjects, if popularity is to be judged by the number of tudents who study it. At the time of the disbursement of grants, to the training of technical personnel ities. It is not so in many countries of Asia. It certainly is not Pakistan where our technical and professional colleges are con- mainly with the production of technicians. It has not yet been ed in my country that even technicians have to work in a society herefore, they should understand it before they apply their knowl- social needs. This shortcoming is getting more and more nt as time passes and unless the public and the government alike o realize that even though the refinement of the human mind may ger be the basic ideal of education, no society can make real ss or find avenues of self-expression without cultivating the graces of life as well as developing a humanist understanding of y. The students in my country are so conscious of employment unities that they tend to flock first to institutions of technical g. Their preferences for other disciplines are in the same as the demand for various categories of techniques in the t.

At present it is not realized by developing countries that from material prosperity a country does need wisdom. A nation ave all the resources and may also possess the means and know- r their utilisation and it may even succeed, through its knowledge ding up a high level of prosperity, yet material prosperity alone t make it great or come to its help in times of crisis. A people discover its soul and the soul cannot be discovered merely by ating the techniques of production which almost invariably lead discovery of instruments of destruction and the temptation to them into service against one's enemies. The technician very cultivates the view that if something can be done it should be and does not wait to assess the moral responsibility of examining ghts and wrongs of the utilisation of power. It is one of the most ssing facts of our age that in the fortunate societies the rise in andard of living and material comfort has not led to a fall in crim crease in public or private morality.

The reason for this malaise is that if education fails to give ral flavour to a person's character and thinking, it can only be uctive. It is a matter of grave concern that there has been a us decline in attachment to the higher values and verities of life. f the most devastating developments in advanced and powerful ries is that the liberalism which moulded the thinking of the in- ctuals during the second, third, and fourth decades of this century egun to lose ground since the Second World War. The period afte and a woeful undermining of loyalty to human values. Of cou development of technology alone cannot be held responsible f the decline of morality but, perhaps, in the extremely compl phenomenon of the breakdown of liberalism and human value importance attached to economic and technical development without an equal emphasis on the acquisition of an appreciati of the values enshrined in the humanities has played an impo role.

In countries where material resources are easily studies in humanities may have declined in importance but th not been completely starved. In Asia where resources, exce or two fortunate countries, are severely limited the first co in the minds of the people and the governments is the remova and ignorance. Economic development, therefore, has beco creed of these nations and their attention has been so greatly from the refinement and enlightenment of the mind that there real deterioration not only in the moral fibre of the society b in its capacity to think out a philosophy of life and existence. generally not realised that the richest nations can be poor wi refinement and wisdom.

The fault does not lie entirely with the peoples or ernments. The universities in my country are poorer in hum because of the distorted attitude towards education which is t tion of history because, as I said earlier, the links with the education were cut off and the new education never came to c the affection or the loyalty that alone could have enshrined it hearts of the people. There has been no real attachment to k as such or to enlightenment and, therefore, when thinking is this manner, the teaching of humanities cannot prosper. And reason for the decline of interest in the humanities is that, u technology and pure science, some of the basic principles of social sciences, philosophy, and literature have no roots in t and consciousness of the people. They cannot flourish so lon basic assumptions remain totally alien.

There would be a future for the humanities in my c perhaps in other Asian countries as well, if they were brough begins to change because of the impact of the surrounding weathe grow in an alien soil with full vigour a plant must acclimatize its over a long period of time so that it attains its fullest vigour und open sky surrounded by the free air.

Perhaps I have been too pessimistic and I should not lo faith in the future of the humanities in a country like Pakistan, b after all, we are witnessing only a period of transition. The cor with Western knowledge will be of use when they cease to domine Opportunities should be created for the growth of ideas emerging the genius of our people. Then interest will revive and humaniti may not become the craze of the multitudes of students seeking e to our portals but there may grow up a healthy and vigorous inter in them which may not be limited only to the students and teache also to the people at large, including the technicians whom we tr Only then could we talk in terms of a pervading culture and mora sciousness which strike roots in the hearts of the people. When shackles of illiteracy are broken and education no longer remain privilege of a few, the people will assert themselves in the expre of ideas and will bring about a revolution leading to the discovery the national soul. There are already heartening indications. Fo instance, the number of students in the leading universities of W Pakistan studying the national literature has increased manyfold the departments of Urdu literature tend to be overcrowded. The growing interest in history which is more related to the discover our own past than with a disproportionate involvement in the hist the West. Of course, so far as history is concerned, like any ot discipline it cannot be studied in isolation, and developments in c life and the historical events shaping the thinking and destiny of c nation have to be related to the events of the world. Similarly, t the extent that our literature and philosophy have points of conta other literatures and philosophies, the study of these contacts wi bring about a better understanding of the growth of our own geniu than is perhaps available today.

THE HUMANITIES IN ASIAN UNIVERSITIES

Dr. Qureshi's Presentation

In summarizing his paper, Dr. Qureshi emphasized s
points:

We must ask whether Asian universities are seats of
tion, or simply training centers for the skilled personnel neede
developing economy. He personally belongs to a generation whi
that basic values are being lost, both to the universities and to
countries. The emphasis upon development has become so stro
the concern for wisdom is sacrificed.

The greatest problem for the humanities is the gener
attitude toward education itself. In many Asian countries, educ
not seen as a spontaneous, indigenous creation, an end in itself
rather as a foreign import with a specific instrumental purpose
means of filling jobs. This type of education permits the obtain
insights into specific subjects but not into their periphery or so
context. In Pakistan, the humanities always are last in the cho
courses, after the sciences, engineering, and other professiona
programs. The continued low enrollment in arts subjects is oc
despite the relatively large number of teaching staff for these fi
and since 96% of his university's income is from the Pakistan G
ment, the university is constantly asked why they maintain thes
ratios despite the continued low enrollment. Dr. Qureshi said
committed to supporting the humanities, despite the pressures
duce the staff in these fields. He stressed that Asian universiti
to relate their humanities teaching increasingly to their countri
tradition, culture, and genius. They should be able to make a c
bution of their own to the humanistic thought of the world, and n
be recipients of ideas and influences.

Dr. Qureshi added some remarks on specific exampl
regional cooperation related to the humanities and social scienc
noted two developments:

(1) In 1961, in Karachi, SEATO passed a resolution c
ing the equivalence of university degrees between Pakistan, Tha
and the Philippines. This "convention" on equivalences, now in
has stimulated considerable student exchange among the three c

(2) A program of university cooperation and exchange be Pakistan, Turkey, and Iran also has been in effect, with the most fr quent exchanges occurring between Pakistan and Iran. Similarly, t have been large numbers of students in Pakistan from Arab countri particularly Saudi Arabia and Jordan. The flow of students has bee more toward Pakistan than vice versa. Dr. Qureshi himself is now serving as consultant to a committee considering the establishment a second university in Saudi Arabia.

Discussion

MR. HITCH opened the general discussion by noting that both Dr. Okochi and Vice-Chancellor Robinson had mentioned the de emphasis of the humanities in the Asian university tradition, but suggested that Dr. Qureshi had struck the heart of the matter: Asia universities must make their own contributions to original thought. science and mathematics, there are standard and precise formulas with universal applicability, but both the humanities and the social sciences deal with phenomena which differ fundamentally from case to case; that is, societies and cultures themselves. Consequently, each country's contribution in these fields can be original and uniqu It is not simply a matter of establishing priorities as between scien and humanities, etc., but rather a question of unique capabilities. There is much with regard to the exposition and analysis of traditio in each country which can be done only by local scholars and institu

DR. THOMPSON noted that in the United States, as well a in Asia, there has been a traditional weakness in the humanities, as exemplified by the difficulties of finding top people who can relate th selves to the moral, ethical dilemmas of their times. He suggested that the general breakdown in moral liberalism following World War was fundamental, and that perhaps the world, as a whole, was still looking for a replacement. Philosophically, the demolition has bee done, but the architecture remains to be accomplished. In the deve oped as well as the developing countries, a great deal is required b we can expect any "quantum leap" in this area.

The Chairman (Mr. Overton) suggested that Dr. Qureshi' paper had been rather bleak in tone, and perhaps categorical about t responsibility of imposed Western forms for the unfortunate conditi of the humanities in Asia; he wondered whether Dr. Qureshi believe replied that he did not mean to be categorical, nor to imply a basi incompatibility between Asian and Western institutions, values, e rather he wished to suggest that the methods by which Western in tutions and values had been imposed were wrong. Western educa had come "not as a gift but really as a punishment." He agreed v Dr. Thompson that humanistic thinking must be based upon the fu mentals of human nature, not on the particular historical circum of any one country or civilization, either as donor or as recipien

In reply to the Chairman's inquiry about the experience the Chinese in Hong Kong with regard to the melding of traditiona and Western cultural forms, MR. ROBINSON noted the extraordi attention given by Chinese scholars to their long historical and c heritage. He suggested that there was a need for fruitful exchan between the more "traditional" scholars of Asian countries, part larly those from China, Japan, and India with long, rich traditio There has been considerable preoccupation with exchange of idea tween scholars of modern outlook interested in the problems of c ment, but relatively little between analysts of traditional societi the gap between the young modern scholar and the older tradition scholar is great, and presents a significant problem for the cre arts.

DR. LI also noted the universal neglect of the humanit yet pointed to the unusually deep concern of Chinese scholars fo own cultural heritage; within the Chinese University of Hong Ko is much attention to traditional studies. In this connection, Dr. questioned the extent to which Dr. Qureshi's point about the sta the humanities was valid. The emphasis upon education for em rather than knowledge and wisdom perhaps was entirely underst Without surrendering entirely to a system of government alloca personnel among subject fields and positions, is there any alter to basic "market forces"? Given this perhaps necessary situat Dr. Li wondered whether the real issue was not the production creasing numbers of specialists in the humanities--philosopher literateurs, etc.--but rather development of basic liberal, hum education for all students, so that specialists as well as laymen be attuned to the cultural and moral conditions of their time.

Dr. Qureshi fully endorsed this analysis; the develop iterature, for example, that a society can create a demand for the umanities just as a demand for technical specialists is created in he job market. Without this demand, and an appropriate cultural esponse, who will provide the wisdom with which to use the special- zed techniques in which the universities already are providing raining?

DR. CHIEN volunteered that in Taiwan, unlike Pakistan, th umanities had not experienced the problem of a declining number of rts students; there continued to be larger numbers of students choos rts and humanities than the medical, engineering, and natural scien he problem is not of numbers but of quality, since it is the weaker students who tend to enroll in the humanistic fields.

Dr. Qureshi inquired whether this Taiwan situation relate to the limited number of places available in the sciences. Dr. Chien responded that it was not, but rather arose from the unfortunate prob lem of early specialization in the high schools, where students must decide which of the three basic fields they will pursue long in advanc of university entrance. The basic allocation of students among acad fields is not dictated by the seats available, but by career decisions too early in life.

MR. HEGGIE observed that in Indian and Ceylonese univer sities there are large numbers of excellent students in the humanitie but that a high proportion tended to be women. Given the historical importance of the wife and mother in the transmission of cultural values, and given the new position of Asian women in modern societ the impact of this phenomenon should not be underestimated. He ad that the traditional values and attitudes on which Dr. Qureshi placed such importance are frequently seen by students as static, and irrel vant to modern circumstances. There is much to be done, perhaps, not simply in returning to traditional values but in adapting and modi fying them to new circumstances. In other words, the universities' approach to the humanities depends very much upon their interpreta upon identifying within them the basis for a new and modern culture.

THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY IN RESEARCH AND PUBLIC SERVICE

Charles J. Hitch

The last few decades have seen a phenomenal increase in he sum of Man's knowledge. A knowledge explosion has occurred. Space exploration has become almost commonplace, yet it was less t en years ago that the first man-made satellite was orbited. Medical research has eliminated polio and offers the hope of feasible artificia rgans. Nuclear physicists are approaching the very essence of mat The expanding list of achievements is long and impressive.

The pace of the quest for knowledge shows no signs of slo The more we know, the more we want to know. As the frontiers of k edge are pushed ever farther away, increasing numbers of educated sons are necessary. Indeed, those who possess specialized knowled have come to be regarded as units of national and regional wealth, m as oil fields or hydroelectric power. An international incident may a from the charges of one country that another country is pirating its scientists. Similar accusations abound within the United States: my own state of California is charged with receiving far more than its share of money and talent for research and development purposes; th is talk of a brain drain to each coast which has allegedly created an intellectual desert in the middle of the country. These arguments, although sometimes stated humorously, are based on the serious fac that there is a shortage of qualified persons. Regardless of how man Ph. D.'s are annually trained, demand outstrips supply.

The university contributes to both the increasing supply a the swelling demand. It, too, is caught up in the knowledge revoluti It is profoundly involved as society's major vehicle for the advancem of knowledge. I will examine some basic aspects of the university a relate them to modern requirements. I hope to reveal the university as a powerful agent of change, a prime factor in the knowledge explo

There are three major missions of the modern universit research, teaching, and public service. While each has its separate life they are, as President James Perkins of Cornell has shown so persuasively in *The University in Transition*, interdependent and mutually reinforcing. No university can afford to stress one aspect to the detriment of the others without weakening the whole. It was s imbalance which characterized many universities of the past and

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vented them from realizing their full potential. Static while alone, amic in combination, these missions give the modern university its que strength.

Research seeks new truths. It has its roots in the classic ek idea that knowledge can be acquired through logical reasoning, its flowering has resulted from the combination of that idea with thrust of modern empiricism. Research pursues not only what is also, more importantly, what can be. It includes the pursuit of wledge for its own sake--basic research--as well as efforts directed ard the solution of some particular, practical problem--applied re- rch. In practice, the line artificially drawn between basic and applie earch disappears. Society has materially benefitted from the efforts nen whose desire to know had no immediate practical spur. The im- tance of research cannot be overstated.

Teaching is the oldest mission of the university. It ensures t knowledge is transmitted from one generation to the next. Teachin rectly assumes that the communication of new ideas is essential for ir continued life. This is as true today, in the use of closed-circuit evision in the classrooms of American Samoa, as it was in the dia- ues of Socrates. Teaching is the communication of ideas and in its ny forms is closely related to research. The knowledge uncovered research would die with its discoverer were it to remain outside the ching process. Knowledge, once acquired, must be transmitted or ication becomes static.

The third major mission of the modern university is public rvice. This mission rests on the concept that knowledge, once ac- ıred and transmitted, can be of use. It assumes that the university s a responsibility to the society in which it exists. Today's universit cognizes that the world requires it to provide fertile and dynamic ide applied knowledge becomes sterile and inert. Public service require application of relevant knowledge to the problems of society. It quires involvement in place of detachment and participation rather an scholastic aloofness. It seeks to extend the benefits of the com- unity of learning to the wider community.

These, then, are the three missions of the modern univers nen they are balanced within a university, their combination provides r great strength; there is provision for the discovery, communicatio

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I want to discuss two of these missions--research and publ
ervice--in somewhat greater depth. Let me assure my listeners that
espite my previous service in the teaching profession, I have no preju
ce against the teaching mission of the university. I choose to speak
n the role of the university in research and public service because I
elieve that these missions are less well understood. I hope to show
hat, perhaps particularly within the field of agriculture, the combina-
on of research and public service with teaching offers significant
romise in the developing areas of the world. While there are many
xciting new developments in teaching, such as the experiments in pro
rammed learning, the teaching mission is traditional. No one is in-
lined to quarrel with the proposition that schools, including universi
hould engage in instruction.

Research has become a very large undertaking in the Unit
States.[1] Federal expenditures supporting scientific research and deve
opment have increased 450 per cent since 1955, some 58 per cent betw
961 and 1964 alone. The percentage comparison between the years pr
ceding 1941 and the present is so great that it becomes meaningless.
Pre-1941 Federal support consisted mainly of comparatively small
allotments for teaching and applied research in agriculture. The ann
Federal outlay for all research and development now approaches $16
billion. While it is true that Federal interest was intially sparked by
the requirements of the Second World War, Federally sponsored rese
(as contrasted with the development of hardware) is no longer directe
primarily in support of national defense. National policy now sustai
a substantial program of support for basic and applied research in
essentially all fields of science. For instance, over 40 per cent of
the Federal funds received by the University of California are for re
search in public health.

Such a massive program of support has increased the re
search role of the university to the point where one speaks of the kn
edge business and the industry of discovery. In America it has ever
been suggested that there may be a danger point of over-support, in
terms of balance and university autonomy. If so, that point has yet
be reached even in my own institution, the University of California
which, if one combined the nine campuses, is the country's largest

ient of Federal research funds.[2] Although there have been some r stresses and strains, we have found the effects of Federal support y beneficial. It has produced new standards of excellence in the al sciences and engineering. The recent Federal interest in the l sciences and in the arts promises advances in these areas as When added to the already significant support of research by the ral states and by private industry and foundations, Federal funds spurred a research revolution the effects of which are manifest ghout the world.

Public service is the newest and most nebulous of university ions; it is difficult to speak of "x" number of dollars devoted to c service, and its results are usually less tangible than research kthroughs. Public service consists of the interchange of ideas een the university and the community. Such exchanges take many s and have proved to be particularly significant in publicly supported tutions such as the University of California.

One activity that directly serves the public is University nsion. Extension exists because of the increasing need for the smission of new knowledge to practitioners in many professional technical fields and to persons outside or beyond the formal class- n. A largely self-supporting arm of the university, Extension serve highly effective administrative device for linking campus and com- ity in the further pursuit of knowledge.

It has been estimated that a modern engineer's knowledge ha alf-life" of ten years. Professional and technical men in California, gnizing that their knowledge is becoming obsolescent, have taken ntage of Extension's opportunities. Over one-half of California's rers, one-fifth of the dentists, one-sixth of the doctors, and one- th of the engineers are currently enrolled in Extension programs. example, in October and November, 1966, University Extension's tinuing Education of the Bar enrolled 9,265 lawyers in a new dence Code Program. This may be the highest total of a practicing essional group that has ever enrolled for a single educational pro- n anywhere. Their participation makes "lifelong learning" more just a slogan.

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University Extension uses many forms in presenting divers
ojects: credit and noncredit courses, conferences, field trips, theat
oups, television, and publications are used for such subjects as city
anning, nuclear technology, political science, drama, and natural
story. In the international field Extension has helped to train Peace
rps volunteers, public health workers, and others for international
velopment. Fifty-five Extension-trained Peace Corps volunteers are
w working on food production problems in India. They were assigned
the Punjab and Rajasthan following eight weeks of training last summ
California's Berkeley campus. Freer of regulations and established
ocedures than regular university academic departments, Extension
its can respond quickly and in a variety of patterns to meet particula
eds for information and training.

One of the significant indicators of the success of universit
tension activities is found in enrollment figures. In California alone
me 230,000 persons, roughly three times the number of regular, ful
ne students, are currently registered in an extension program. Thi
gorous interest in education strengthens both the university and the
blic which it serves, for public service is a two-way street. The in
rests and requirements of society must make themselves felt on the
iversity campus; they must elicit some response. The university
hich tries to maintain itself as an island of learning in a sea of igno-
ance runs the great risk of becoming irrelevant.

The public service mission is not restricted to a narrowly
onstrued local public; it also includes international university assista
nd cooperation. An interesting example of service to the world publi
found in the cosmic ray exploration of the Egyptian pyramids. The
asis for the experiment is the deception theory which holds that Egyp
onarchs, wary of grave robbers and anxious to preserve their bodie
nmortality, ingeniously planned their pyramids in such a way as to m
ead future generations into believing that the tombs had already been
lundered. This theory has led to the widely held suspicion that the r
urial chambers of the pharoahs have remained hidden in the pyramid
or some 4,500 years. This archaeological riddle may soon be solve
y a team of Egyptian and University of California scientists led by
erkeley professor Luis Alvarez. Using cosmic ray particles--muor
nd a technique developed in research at the Lawrence Radiation Labo
ory of the University of California, the scientists will photograph the

detectors through measurement of pyramid density; heavier
rations of muons will pass through the open chambers than will
rough the solid limestone of the pyramid itself. If the interna-
niversity team proves the existence of previously hidden chambe
dge of the remarkable early Egyptian civilization could be con-
ly enhanced.

Another aspect of public service concerns the citizens of the
ity community. As students and scholars, they are called upon
ribute their special talents to society. Scientists, economists,
itical scientists are in constant demand as consultants to all
of government. City planners and sociologists are asked to help
he problems of an increasingly urban civilization. As partici-
n local political processes, faculty members lend sophistication
pertise to government not readily found in cities without universi
Students, too, contribute to serving the community: volunteering
al service in blighted sections of cities and participating in the
Corps after graduation are but two examples. In addition, many
s prepare in their formal studies for a career of public service.

There is in the United States an extensive movement of
uals among the academic, business, and government worlds.
novement goes beyond the consultation just mentioned and beyond
t-time teaching activities of government officials and business-
involves a change of roles. The interchange of individuals and
challenges the assumptions of narrowly conceived viewpoints.
nobility brings together the creative knowledge of the university,
icient pragmatism of industry, and the responsible authority of
ment. Each world is enriched and invigorated by the contribu-
f these men. Not surprisingly, the most mobile individuals hav
talents. Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara, once a univer-
acher, became president of one of the world's largest companie
ord Motor Company. Former professor Dean Rusk served with
S. State Department before he became head of the Rockefeller
ation; he then returned to State as its Secretary. President
hower and Senator J. W. Fulbright are former university presi-
The Asian service of former ambassadors John Kenneth Galbr
dwin O. Reischauer, both Harvard professors, is particularly
nt to this Conference. The movement of such men from campus
iness to government is public service of the highest order.

of its faculty, is frequently able to provide development, refinement, and fulfillment of esthetic needs, and a flow of creative ideas. The university, conscious of its potential for cultural leadership, can provide a center of esthetic creativity which enriches the life of the community.

The ultimate measure of a university's public service rests on the quality of its research and instruction; it cannot stand alone. Researchers must be provided sufficient funds and autonomy so that ideas continue to flow from the laboratory. The caliber of teaching must provide the student, both undergraduate and graduate, with the best possible education. A university's total value to society will be determined by its products, ideas, and graduates, and also by its willingness to serve. Today's university must stand on three legs for proper balance.

I would now like to discuss one particular example of the successful synthesis of the research, teaching, and public service functions of the university: the remarkable growth and productivity of California agriculture. Although I will be speaking about my own university and my own state, I believe this story to be of much wider significance. The state of California, with nearly 20 million persons, is larger than many countries. The University of California is composed of nine semi-autonomous campuses. Its Berkeley and Los Angeles campuses are each larger (27,500 students) than many universities. Coordination of the activities of this nine-campus system frequently involves problems and opportunities similar to those found in interuniversity cooperation. In many ways, California and California agriculture can serve as a basic model for university-aided development.

It is reasonably safe to say that modern industrial development is almost impossible unless farm productivity can be raised, the farming population reduced, and those freed from the soil made available for industry. In the United States today, six per cent of the working population is involved in agricultural production. This six per cent, however, is producing more and better food than the 17 per cent so employed as recently as 1940.[3] This rise in efficiency and productivity is a direct result of the application to the farm of university-developed science and technology, and this combination of agricultural research and public service has contributed much toward making California the leading agricultural state in the United States.

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[3] See Appendix C for statistics of farm output, employment and productivity.

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Three Federal acts facilitated the development of California agriculture. The Morrill Land Grant Act, signed by President Lincoln in 1862, granted public lands to each participating state, the sale of which would provide funds for the endowment and maintenance of at least one college "where the leading object shall be... to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts." The University of California, established in 1868, is such a Land Grant college; the College of Agriculture was its first academic unit.

The Hatch Act of 1887 provided Federal support for Agricultural Experiment Stations. The California Experiment Station, founded in 1874 to engage in applied agricultural research, benefitted from the Act.

In 1914, President Woodrow Wilson signed the Smith-Lever Act into law. Its purpose was to "aid in diffusing among the people useful and practical information relating to agriculture and home economics, and to encourage its application." The California Agricultural Extension Service was established under Smith-Lever provisions.

These beginnings have developed into the University of California's Division of Agricultural Sciences. The Division now includes the Colleges of Agriculture, the Schools of Forestry and Veterinary Medicine, the Agricultural Experiment Station with its statewide research facilities, and the Agricultural Extension Service which makes the results of research available to the people of the state. California's is not a unique system; there is no magic in its organization. Any organization in any country can function successfully as long as it recognizes the importance of both research and the application of research in the field.

The Colleges of Agriculture and the Schools of Forestry and Veterinary Medicine are campus-based, traditional academic institutions, with responsibility for instruction and research. These colleges and schools produce the highly trained graduates that are increasingly necessary in today's agriculture.

The Agriculture Experiment Station concentrates on both basic and applied research with no teaching responsibilities. It operates on the several University campuses, in ten established field stations, and in additional experimental areas. The field stations are purposely located in differing climatic and crop zones so that a wide range of research is possible. One such field station, Hopland, is located on

5, 307 acres in a northern California county. Established in 1951, its grass, woodland, and brush provide a location for experiments on range improvement and livestock management. A flock of sheep is maintained for animal husbandry experiments. Scientists at Hopland also conduct hydrological experiments on watershed units, wildlife investigations, and research on control of range weeds, brush, and trees. The nearly 1000-mile length of California contains almost every type of climate and topography, and optimal use of this varied landscape is aided by the extensive and varied program of Experiment Station research.

The California Agricultural Extension Service, like the regular University Extension already mentioned, considers the entire state its campus. It is a cooperative venture of the University, the United States Department of Agriculture, and the county governments of California to offer out-of-school learning in agricultural communities. The Department of Agriculture and the counties provide about 40 per cent of its funds with the University contributing the balance. There are 53 offices located throughout California staffed with from one to 20 professional persons.

A large measure of Agricultural Extension's strength lies in its links with the research facilities of the University, particularly those of the Experiment Station. Extension serves as the field arm of the Agricultural Experiment Station, often becoming part of the applied research effort. The two units work together, the Station conducting research and the Extension Service refining and adapting the research to meet local conditions.

Agricultural Extension is involved in many fields connected with California agriculture. Among these are nutrition and dietetic advice for farm families, economics counsel for the businesses which supply and process farm products, and development of agriculture-based youth programs. Other areas of Extension interest include the increasing urbanization of California (375 acres of open land become urban every day), water resources, and air pollution.

The staff members of the Agricultural Extension Service receive academic appointments at the University and are full-fledged members of the academic community. In serving California agriculture, they use individual consultations, field demonstrations, radio, television, and newspapers, and short, non-credit courses. One of Agricultural Extension's basic tenets is that there must be local initiative, receptivity, and cooperation in the farm community; the Service does not try to force-feed scientific agriculture to farmers. Knowledge can rarely be imposed on any group and Agricultural Extension does not attempt to do so. Extension staff members live and work in farm communities throughout the state. This helps to assure that programs are locally relevant and facilitates the flow of information back to the University. The Agricultural Extension Service must be a two-way channel; it must inform the people of recent advances in agricultural science and technology and it must make the needs and desires of the farmer known to the researcher.

The Extension Service's role is educational; it has no regulatory authority, no money to lend or disburse, and no laws to enforce. It may demonstrate new pruning techniques, but it does not prune the entire orchard. It may recommend a nutritious diet, but it neither sells nor provides the food for it. It serves as an off-campus educational arm of the University, linking the farmer with the research facilities of both the University and the Department of Agriculture. The California Agricultural Extension Service provides public service in the form of teaching.

The statewide nature of our Division of Agricultural Sciences has made possible progress unattainable in a piecemeal approach to problems. Agricultural engineers and economists, plant pathologists, biochemists, irrigation and soil scientists are able to attack a problem as a team. The whole University can present a concentration of scientific power capable of bringing knowledge and technical skill from several disciplines, colleges, and campuses to focus on a single research need.

The development of harvesting machines offers an example. Such machines can revolutionize harvesting and have been extremely valuable in reducing labor requirements. A harvesting machine is more than just another machine, however. Before the engineers build a machine, the chemists and plant pathologists are brought in to discover how a particular fruit can be loosened so that it will come off the tree without resistance. Horticulturalists may have to change the configuration of the tree itself before a picking machine becomes feasible. In the case of the tomato harvester developed by the University, it was necessary to change the shape of the tomato. This was done, and this year about half of all California-canned tomatoes, in their new shapes, were harvested by machine.

It has been estimated that the value of University research to California farmers, processors, and food distributors each year far exceeds what the State has invested in such research since it began almost a century ago.

To cite a few examples: By 1956, the spotted alfalfa aphid had infested 96 per cent of a crop valued at nearly $150 million annually. Using three Middle Eastern parasites of the wasp family, selective insecticides, and a new aphid-resistant variety of alfalfa, University scientists and Extension personnel eradicated the pest. Such a system of integrated measures for pest control has proved itself far superior to heavy use of insecticide. The dollar savings amount to over $13 million per year. The collection and employment of the Middle Eastern parasites provides an interesting example of international university cooperation. Reasoning from the Arabian origin of the spotted alfalfa aphid, the University sent entomologist Robert Van Den Bosch to the Middle East to search for biological control agents in the aphid's natural habitat. After consulting with agricultural faculties in Turkey, Iran, Iraq, Israel, and the United Arab Republic, Professor Van Den Bosch chose three wasp varieties which prey on alfalfa aphids by stinging them to death. The wasps then lay their eggs in the dead aphid which ironically sustains a new generation of aphid-killers. The wasps were brought back to California, bred, and placed in the field where they played an important role in the integrated control of the spotted alfalfa aphid.

The University has developed the nation's broadest research program on the problem of meatodes, the tiny soil worms that feed on roots of almost all plants. Methods of soil fumigation were developed that have resulted in 30 per cent increases in citrus crop yields on nematode-infested land.

Great advances have been made in chemical fertilization. Research which identified phosphorous deficiencies and determined optimum rates for the addition of nitrogen to the soil has increased southern California's potato crop in many fields by 100 per cent. Use of radioactive tracer chemicals has established the essential need of alfalfa for cobalt. As little as five-billionths of a gram of cobalt has increased alfalfa yields twenty-fold. A drastic change in strawberry planting times has increased yields by over 300 per cent.

There is no question that in California the vigorous combination of agricultural research and Agricultural Extension has proved immensely successful. Research is translated into hardier grains, healthier animals, and more scientifically oriented farmers. In turn, the farmers' problems and requirements promote new research. As the number of farms and farmers decreases, the pressure to apply more advanced technology mounts. The results are almost magical: more and better food produced by fewer farmers using less labor on less land.

I believe the California experience to be dramatic proof of the value of the modern university. The most recent mission of the university--public service--has increased the demand for research even as it has applied the benefits of previous research. Public service has made the university a more useful member of society while it has raised the standards of that society. The missions of research and public service, combined with quality instruction, have immeasurably increased the potential of the university as an agent of change and development.

APPENDIX A

TABLE 1

Federal Government Support for Research, by Field of Science
(in millions of dollars)

	1955-56	1959-60	1963-64
Total Research	844	1,927	5,785
Life Sciences:			
Biological	55	106	266
Medical	99	342	841
Agricultural	44	68	86
Psychological Sciences	n. a.	38	97
Physical Sciences:			
Physical Science Proper	n. a.	421	1,537
Mathematics	n. a.	24	168
Engineering	n. a.	861	2,570
Social Sciences	n. a.	35	106

n. a. Not Available

APPENDIX A

TABLE 2

Funds for Research and Development, by Source
(in millions of dollars)

	Federal Government	Industry	Colleges and Universities
1955-56	3,670	2,510	155
1959-60	8,320	4,060	200
1962-63	10,995	4,995	260
est. 1967	16,000	7,700	n. a.

(Approximately $5.5 billion of the $16 billion of Federal funds for fiscal 1967 is for basic and applied research, carried on mainly by educational institutions.)

APPENDIX B

Current Fund Expenditures - University of California

1964-65

	Total (in thousands)	Percent of Total
Instruction and departmental research	$ 97,093	27.1
Organized activities:		
Hospitals and clinics	23,844	6.7
Other	3,025	.8
Organized research	102,746	28.7
Libraries	12,905	3.6
Extension and public service	27,770	7.7
Maintenance and operation of plant	16,136	4.5
General administration	10,434	2.9
Student services	11,756	3.3
Staff benefits	14,954	4.2
General institutional services and expenses	5,803	1.6
Auxiliary enterprises	20,698	5.8
Student aid	11,063	3.1
Total	$ 358,227	100.0

Total expenditures for current operations for the 1964-65 fiscal year, exclusive of Special Federal Research Operations, were $358,227,080 of which $95,811,709 or 26.7 was financed from extramural sources. The extramural funds were used principally to finance organized research. Expenditures for this purpose totaled $102,745,770 (28.7% of total expenditures) of which $70 million or 68.6% was provided from extramural sources. The Federal Government provided the greatest proportion of the extramural funds, $83,383,941 or 87.0% and accounted for 61% of funds expended for Organized Research.

APPENDIX C

TABLE 1

Index of Farm Output (1957-59 = 100)

	1930	1940	1950	1960	1963
Farm Output	61	70	86	106	112

(Measures annual volume of farm production available for eventual human use.)

TABLE 2

Index of Farm Output per Man-hour (1957-59 = 100)

	1930	1940	1950	1960	1963
Output per Man-hour	28	36	61	115	135

TABLE 3

Annual Yield per Acre, Selected Crops

	1931-35 Average	1963
Wheat (in bushels)	13. 1	25. 1
Rice (in pounds)	2, 135	3, 962
Corn for grain (bushels)	23. 3	67. 3
Cotton (in pounds)	191	524
Tobacco (in pounds)	808	1, 933

APPENDIX C

TABLE 4

Farm Population (in thousands)

	Farm Population	Farm Population as a Percent of Total Population
1920	31,974	30.1
1930	30,529	24.9
1940	30,547	23.2
1950	23,048	15.3
1960	15,635	8.7
1963	13,367	7.1

TABLE 5

Agricultural Labor as Percentage of Total Labor Force

	Number (in thousands)	Percent
1940	8,894	17.1
1950	6,858	11.6
1960	4,085	6.0

THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY IN RESEARCH AND PUBLIC SERVICE

Discussion

After Mr. Hitch had summarized the highlights of his paper, the Chairman (Mr. Overton) asked how many of the Asian universities represented performed a public service role similar to the University of California. The participants granted the importance of this university function and indicated various areas in which their institutions catered for public needs. At the same time, they stressed the financial and staffing limitations which prevented large-scale development of this type of contribution. As DR. OKOCHI pointed out, professors in tightly staffed departments do not have the time and energy to assume responsibility for public service in addition to their teaching and research.

For some departments, such as education, medicine, psychology, and social work, public service is a natural extension of the regular work being done. Many departments find it possible to provide public lectures. But the development of large-scale public service programs in agriculture, economics, and public health makes demands that most Asian universities find it difficult to afford. Outside agencies, like The Asia Foundation, it was pointed out, can demonstrate the usefulness of research and public service by funding projects in their initial stages and thereby attracting capital from governments and private industry.

The provision of foreign research scholars was considered the best means of temporarily relieving the staffing problem and permitting more Asian scholars to participate in research and public service. Mr. Hitch had mentioned the recent establishment at the University of California of an International Service Faculty which will be composed of scholars with regular faculty appointments who will work exclusively on research projects abroad. DR. WILLIAMS mentioned the International Education Act recently passed by Congress which will grant funds to American universities to permit the stockpiling of faculty in certain departments, allowing more scholars to serve abroad. Both these developments, it was agreed, would increase the flow of American scholars to Asian universities and thereby assist the development of research and public service programs.

The need to encourage research was recognized by the participants, It was felt to be not solely a problem of finance and limited staff but of motivation. Mr. Hitch felt it was important that scholars exclusively concerned with basic and applied research be given the same rank and salary as their counterparts on the regular teaching faculty. Many of the institutions represented promote their faculty on the basis of their research and publications as well as on their performance as teachers. This was considered justifiable but a motivational requirement that should not be too rigidly enforced.

FIFTH SESSION

December 21, morning

Chairman: William L. Eilers, Representative, Malaysia

Rapporteurs: William J. Klausner, Acting Representative, Thailand
Stephen Uhalley, Program Specialist, Republic of China Office

Papers by: Choh-Ming Li, Vice-Chancellor, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Inter-University Cooperation in Area Programs and the Social Sciences: Asian Problems and Prospects

Panel of Representatives: William L. Eilers (Malaysia), Chairman; David I. Steinberg (Korea); James H. Noyes (Ceylon); Douglas P. Murray (Singapore)

Opportunities for Inter-University Cooperation, as Seen by Asia Foundation Representatives

MR NOYES
MR UHALLEY
MR EILERS

(clockwise from below) Dr. Li, Dr. Sterling
Mr. Murray, Mr. Steinberg, Mr. Eilers, Mr. Noyes, Mr. Uhalley

INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN AREA PROGRAMS AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES: ASIAN PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS*

Choh-Ming Li

When I was asked to speak about inter-university cooperation in area study programs, I asked myself the following questions:

What do we mean by area studies?

What disciplines are we to include in area study programs?

What is the present state of area studies in Asian universities?

What conditions seem to be favorable to the development of these programs?

What are the forms of inter-university cooperation involving social sciences in Asian universities?

And, finally, what are some of the goals that we might set for inter-university cooperation in area studies?

Since Asia has such a wide diversity of countries, cultures, and universities, I frankly was quite reluctant to talk in general terms about these questions. Even a cursory view of Asian diversity is sufficient warning that one must avoid sweeping statements about the area. However, since there are many problems and characteristics that are shared by universities throughout Asia, I felt there was at least sufficient evidence to provide our distinguished visitors here today with some guidelines and thoughts for discussion.

Therefore, with the appropriate reservations and qualifications in mind, let me move cautiously to my questions.

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* I am indebted to Dr. Robert Mitchell, Director of the Social Survey Research Centre of The Chinese University, for his assistance in preparation of this paper.

INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN AREA PROGRAMS AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES: ASIAN PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

WHAT ARE AREA STUDY PROGRAMS?

My first question asked "What do we mean by area study programs?" Rather than give an immediate answer to this, let me place area study programs within the larger context of social science research institutes found in universities around the world. Universities have a wide variety of social science centres and institutes, but for present purposes we might point to four kinds. First, there are centres organized around well-established disciplines and departments--for example, economic research centres and educational research centres. The faculty, teaching, and research of these centres are not necessarily oriented to an understanding of any particular country, although this, in fact, is the normal situation. For the most part, these centres use the tools of only one discipline in analysing a traditional range of issues relating to a single nation.

Second, there are centres organized around particular methods that are used in several disciplines. Survey research centres are the best and perhaps only example of this kind of organization. Since they are usually designed to facilitate the research efforts of faculty by means of providing sampling, interviewing, and tabulation services, their focus is almost exclusively on the home country where it is possible to develop these resources.

Third, there are a number of institutes that are beginning to focus primarily but not exclusively on overseas countries, especially countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. There are a variety of such centres. For example, centres for the study of developing societies and centres for international comparative studies often utilize a wide range of social science disciplines and methodologies to study an equally wide range of countries in all the developing areas. These centres tend to undertake multi-nation programs in social science studies.

Different from these three kinds of programs is the fourth type which may be identified as area study programs per se. Instead of relying on only one social science discipline and method, a variety of disciplines and methods are used; and instead of focussing on many countries in different continents, the program has as its centre of concern all the countries in a defined geographical and cultural area, such as South East Asia, South Asia, or even Latin America. For some very large, complex, and important countries--such as China, India, and Russia--the program may focus on only a single nation.

Area study programs, then, have a defined geographical focus and a variety of disciplines, methodologies, and intellectual perspectives. These centres have the advantage of organizing faculty, library, and research and training resources, as well as research funds, for an interdisciplinary approach to problems of a particular country and region. Needless to say, these problems often are vitally relevant to the development goals of the countries and regions being studied.

WHAT DISCIPLINES ARE INCLUDED IN AREA STUDY PROGRAMS?

It is somewhat a moot point to argue whether one discipline should be included or excluded from an area study program. In fact, we have languages and humanities together with economics, political science, sociology, and anthropology. We also have history and business administration. One of the strong points of area study programs is that social science research is established on a firm linguistic, cultural, and historical base. However, the exciting intellectual developments in area study programs over the past generation have been provided by the social sciences. I would hazard the prophecy that the exciting intellectual developments in the next generation will be provided by social scientists who turn their attention to international comparative studies on an intra-regional and inter-regional basis.

History is increasingly qualifying itself as a social science discipline of significance to these programs. More and more historians are using social science concepts and methods, and more and more social scientists are conducting historical studies. We are beginning to obtain excellent, often quantitative, historical studies of social class, the provision of social welfare services, the development of industries, and the growth of government bureaucracies. One would be hard put to say whether these studies were prepared by historians or by social scientists, nor is this a question of much significance today.

In addition to using new methods, historians are also turning their attention to topics--such as slavery, colonial policy, intellectuals, and the university itself--that can be studied from a cross-cultural perspective. That is, historians are not only breaking out of their methodological and conceptual parochialism; they also are breaking out of the parochialism of a particular nation. Because of these changes, the new historians are extremely valuable members of area study programs.

We might note in passing that faculty members teaching business administration also can play valuable roles in area study programs. An understanding of marketing systems, industrial relations, and processes of management decision making--all topics of special concern to teachers of business administration--are obviously relevant to an understanding of the social, political, and economic development of a country or a region.

WHAT IS THE PRESENT STATE OF AREA STUDIES IN ASIAN UNIVERSITIES?

Area study programs, as described so far, are programs of social science studies, and, therefore, when we ask, "What is the present state of area studies in Asian universities?" we are also asking the more general question of "What is the present state of the social sciences in Asian universities?" Furthermore, since our discussion of area study programs was framed in research as well as in teaching terms, we must also ask "What is the present state of social science research in Asian universities?"

These are very big and very important questions that require more investigation than I have been able to give them. You will please excuse me if I again mention only some of the more salient issues that need to be considered in answering these several questions. Three issues seem especially relevant: (1) the significance of having a colonial background, (2) the character of Asian universities, and (3) the research orientations of university faculties. Let us look at each of these issues separately.

First, most of the countries in Asia are ex-colonies, and in countries where universities were established by the colonial governments special attention had long been given to the metropolitan region and its cultural heritage. The study of neighboring countries and colonies was muted by this colonial bind.

We might also note that the universities in the metropolitan regions--Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands--were rather slow and conservative in the development of modern methods of empirical social science research. This is especially true with regard to sociology and political science. As a consequence, in establishing colonial universities patterned after the metropolitan model, the colonial governments tended to export a university tradition that today is inappropriate to the needs of Asian governments for social science research on issues relevant to the country's development needs.

My second point pertains to the kind of higher education institutions we have today in Asia, especially South East Asia. Frankly, most of them are none other than four-year colleges, and, for the most part, it does not seem that the colleges or their governments have formulated a clear philosophy of higher education. Although the creation of high quality universities is one of the important development goals of governments in Asia, it is not certain whether these universities are ends in themselves, institutions limited to training the future élite, or whether they are multi-purpose organizations providing training, conducting basic research, and contributing in a variety of practical ways to the community that supports them.

The absence of a research-minded faculty and administration is related to the character of the four-year college and the ambiguity of the university's purpose. Let us refer to the American scene for the difference between four-year colleges and universities.

America has many excellent four-year colleges, but just how much creative social science research is done at Coe, Grinnell, and Kalamazoo? Or, how much is done at even the élite colleges such as Amherst, Swarthmore, and Reed? I do not intend to be pejorative and negative in my references to these excellent colleges, for it is obvious that their faculties produce outstanding research. One can also say the same thing about some of the smaller state universities, such as Maine, Montana, and New Mexico. But when one thinks of major research in America, he thinks primarily of universities offering strong doctorate programs. Furthermore, he usually thinks of only a few leading universities. Research by Lazarsfeld and Thielens on American social scientists, research by Berelson on graduate education in the United States, and numerous studies of the distribution of research monies to universities all point to the stratification of American universities according to the eminence, productivity, and brilliance of their faculty.

Therefore, it is not so surprising that talented faculty in four-year colleges and in universities with weak graduate programs produce relatively little research. Given the distribution of research resources, one might ask how it is that they are able to produce at all.

We should have the same feelings about our social science faculties in South East Asia. For the most part, they are small four-year colleges with only fledgling programs in graduate studies. We are like Coe and Amherst. We provide basic undergraduate training at home, while our graduate schools are in America, Britain, and Europe. This may or may not be a healthy and economical situation, but it is a fact that most of us are living with.

As suggested earlier, however, these are not facts standing by themselves, for they are related to the colonial background of the universities and to the traditional philosophy of education exported from the metropolitan country. It would appear that in many Asian countries, especially those in South East Asia, the national or state university is seen as an end in itself. Although creative research is certainly permitted in these universities, the almost exclusive emphasis is upon the teaching function.

These various influences--the colonial heritage, the character of the university, and the absence of faculty research interests--have contributed to the present state of the social sciences and area study programs in Asia. The social sciences are underdeveloped, and area study programs are practically non-existent.

WHAT CONDITIONS SEEM TO BE FAVORABLE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AREA PROGRAMS?

Although only a few Asian universities have area study programs, I think we have enough information now to suggest what is needed in order to develop such programs in the future. Let me suggest three especially important conditions.

First, as countries in Asia have become independent, they have naturally developed their own individual national interests. Some of these interests relate to neighboring countries for which no reliable information and understanding is available. It is not surprising that some national governments are inclined to provide the national university with the financial support to create programs of research on neighboring countries. The role of national interest was no doubt important in the decision of India to create the first chair of Chinese Studies a year ago at the University of New Delhi, and similar interests may have motivated Chinese study programs in Japanese universities. As Asian countries are brought closer together in the future, we can expect that there will be an increased awareness of the need for still greater information about neighboring countries. These developments will in turn encourage the creation of additional area study programs.

Since the social sciences are the primary contributors to area study programs, another condition for the development of these programs is the development of social sciences. Through national and international programs to be discussed again later, this development is occurring quite rapidly in most Asian countries. As a result, we should soon have the intellectual resources for the creation of area study programs.

The third condition is the growing interest in research on the part of university social scientists. Without such a development, there would be no need for governments to support area study programs within the universities, for the basic research needed on other nations could be done within government itself.

Let me say that we know it is not an easy thing to develop research within our universities, and since our universities are still primarily four-year colleges, it may not be possible to set the same standards of productivity as found in the better Western universities. However, in making appointments and promotions, I feel that an increasing number of Asian universities are asking themselves if a social science faculty member who is not committed to research and who is not interested in the world around him is the kind of person who can provide students with the intellectual experiences and challenges necessary in higher education. Of course, in order to encourage faculty to conduct research, the faculty must be given adequate encouragement, facilities, and recognition. Many universities are providing these very effectively by creating the first two kinds of research centres I mentioned in my opening remarks--that is, centres organized around particular disciplines and centres organized around a particular research method. These research centres are creating the atmosphere and expertness necessary for the development of a research-minded social science faculty, a requisite for the creation of area study programs.

WHAT ARE THE FORMS OF INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES?

Given the limited resources for social science research within Asian countries, and given the need for a wider perspective on and knowledge about the region, it is only natural that we look to ways of pooling our resources and perspectives in a way that will benefit one another. In this regard, I would like to mention four different kinds of inter-university cooperation involving social science research in Asia.

First, two or more universities within a single country occasionally cooperate with one another. Some universities are sharing a common research facility, such as a computer, and some universities have divided responsibilities among them in a common research project. Informal faculty colloquia designed to develop faculty research interests and expertness are still another way in which social scientists from different universities cooperate with one another.

Second, universities from two or more countries within the same region cooperate with one another. Unfortunately, I do not know of any such direct, formal cooperation, but we will come back to this problem later.

Third, a university in a developing country cooperates with one or more universities from a Western country. This is a very common and extremely valuable form of assistance to Asian universities. For example, The Chinese University of Hong Kong is cooperating with the University of California in a number of ways beneficial to the social sciences. We hope that this will be especially helpful in developing faculty resources, for we are sending promising young faculty and students to California for further training, and in return California sends us visiting professors, as well as graduate fellows and undergraduates.

There are also examples of a single Asian university cooperating with two or more Western universities in the same program. This is an interesting development worthy of an additional comment. I am thinking here of a successful program Indiana University conducted in Thailand for a number of years which included assistance in the establishment and development of an Institute of Public Administration at Thammasat University in Bangkok. This Institute has now been absorbed into the National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) which was founded recently by the Thai Government. In order to maximize the valuable contributions it has been making, not only in Thailand but also in other countries, Indiana has joined with several other leading Midwestern universities in forming the Midwest Universities Consortium on International Affairs, for which it serves as coordinator. The Consortium is cooperating with the Thai Government in initiating the work of NIDA, which has financial assistance from the Ford Foundation.

This kind of cooperation need not be limited to large universities, for it could enable smaller colleges to pool their more limited resources so that they could realize their ambitions of reaching out to serve overseas communities. It would be possible, for example, for several sociology departments to cooperate through their universities in adopting and assisting a sociology department in one of our Asian universities. Although any one department could not spare a good man each year, they could cooperatively arrange to do this.

The fourth kind of inter-university cooperation involves two or more Western universities that operate more or less independently of Asian universities. The London-Cornell project is an example of this kind of program.

In addition to inter-university cooperation involving Asian universities and countries, we of course also have many Western social scientists and universities coming here for research purposes. Since there is some evidence that more universities will be bringing larger projects to Asia, I think it is appropriate to mention a complaint that has been made against the way some of these projects have operated in the past. I refer here to the establishment, on the part of the foreign university, of a local field office for the purpose of facilitating the research activities of the university's faculty. Once the university's grant for this work terminates, the field office is closed with no lasting benefit to local social scientists, government, or people. It is true that the local government may have invited the foreign university to start its research program, but this does not alter the consequences of this particular mode of operation. Native scholars see foreigners do research which they wanted to do for years but could not do because of lack of funds and time. They see their best research assistants bought off at salaries that are very high by local standards. And they see the foreign scholar take all his punch cards and research materials back home. Local scholars do not even have the opportunity to use these materials for purposes of secondary analysis. In short, the foreign researcher bypasses his local colleagues, does nothing for the local university or its students, and too often fails to make his findings and materials available to those who could most benefit from them.

Is it unreasonable to ask visiting scholars to Asia to build into their research programs a place for the native scholar and student? Innovations are necessary in order to bring the local scholar into closer contact with those who are doing significant research on his country.

WHAT GOALS SHOULD WE SET FOR INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN AREA STUDIES AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES?

Now that we have talked in general terms about forms of inter-university cooperation, let me move next to what the purposes of cooperation should be between Western and Asian universities. Although I have just alluded to this issue, it is so important that I would like to touch on it again.

Asian universities must be very clear in their minds regarding the ways that inter-university cooperation is to benefit their faculties and institutions. Of course, every university worthy of the name will do everything in its power to assist scholars and students visiting from Western universities. However, because we have only limited resources, we must be absolutely sure that programs affecting faculty time and university resources are unequivocally beneficial to our faculty and students. Specifically, we must be certain that inter-university programs help us develop our faculty to a stage where it is completely capable of playing all the major roles within the university.

Moreover, given the underdeveloped stage of social science research in many of our universities, the other basic purpose of these programs is to provide academic leadership in research during the period that our own faculty's capabilities are being developed. We have been adopting this strategy in The Chinese University by appointing outstanding foreign research scholars to the directorships of our leading social science research centres. I emphasize the word "outstanding," for it makes very little sense to enter into an agreement with a Western university that is unable to provide the kind of person who can effectively exercise leadership. Certainly no Asian university can afford to be the dumping ground for unsuccessful Ph. D. candidates and faculty from other countries. However, it is unfortunate that some leading Western universities have difficulties in encouraging better faculty to assume the responsibilities that the university has accepted. Some universities are so overextended that they have to recruit people outside the university to fill the responsibilities of their own faculty. The university becomes a broker, sending people overseas who would never be accepted within the sending university. The development of a consortium, as mentioned earlier, could be one way of avoiding these situations.

Intra-Asian Inter-University Cooperation

Through the efforts of our Asian universities themselves, and through the assistance provided by Western universities, many of the universities in Asia are now in a position to cooperate with one another in the social sciences. Most of our universities already have the resources necessary for initiating significant research on their own countries, although they do not have the resources necessary for developing adequate area study programs. However, through cooperation we can bring to the region many of the advantages found in well-designed area study programs, especially programs emphasizing international comparative studies.

This cooperation could take the following forms:

1. Greater opportunities could be provided for bringing scholars, especially research scholars, in the same discipline together. In this regard, the feasibility of occasional social science conferences on a regional basis might be explored.

2. More specifically, it would be especially helpful to hold summer seminars and conferences for faculty members interested in particular kinds of research, For example, many scholars throughout Asia are engaged in research on the family, on national income, on demography, and on the modernization process. It would be very helpful for all these scholars if they were able to meet for several weeks and go over each other's work and findings, especially with regard to the international comparative dimension of their present and proposed research.

   In addition to reviewing research in progress, it would also be extremely helpful to hold summer seminars on research methods for young faculty who wish to develop their research skills.

   UNESCO has taken the lead in sponsoring these kinds of seminars in Europe, but very little has been done in developing countries. Unfortunately, South East Asia has probably been the most neglected area for research training, conferences, and social science activities on an international scale.

3. A clearing house for research done within Asia is needed. UNESCO has done some useful but relatively unknown work in this regard for India, but again South East Asia could benefit from a similar service.

4. To broaden the perspectives of our faculties and students, inter-university exchange programs between Asian countries should be developed.

5. Finally, in order to encourage comparative studies and a regional perspective, funds should be made available for joint research projects. Any number of modest research projects would be possible--for example, studies of entrepreneurship, religious beliefs and practices, consumers' decision-making, family planning, and the recruitment of government leaders.

In order to establish these programs of intra-regional cooperation, it will be necessary to create appropriate procedures and organizations. Unfortunately, I do not have time in the very few remaining minutes to discuss these organizational forms. However, I would hope that we might receive some suggestions on procedures from others around the table during the discussion period following my talk.

To me, it is also obvious that local universities do not have the financial resources necessary for developing these experimental programs, and I seriously doubt whether the governments in Asia would be inclined to support what is in effect a combined Fulbright and East-West Centre program limited to our own region. For this reason, we will necessarily have to rely on outside sources of support. As all in attendance here know, the major advances in social sciences within Asian universities already owe a great deal to the support so generously provided by those from outside the region.

In summarizing my comments to you today, I have tried to suggest some of the influences affecting the development of area study programs and their component social sciences within Asian universities. These developments have been encouraged and facilitated by the valuable contributions provided by Western universities and countries, but Asia as a whole, and specific areas within it, are at a stage in their history when a regional perspective is urgently needed. I believe that we are in a position today to lay the groundwork and chart the course for university programs that will help provide us with this perspective. It is my sincere belief that this distinguished group is the very one that could take the lead in meeting this challenge.

INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN AREA PROGRAMS AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES: ASIAN PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Dr. Li's Presentation

Dr. Li summarized his formal paper stressing several points that he hoped would elicit comments from the participants.

He stated that it was vital to Asia's development today to look to the future and emphasize the enriching of Asian culture and relating it to the needs of modern society. He cautioned against giving overriding concern to cultural heritage and noted that in the social sciences, the humanities, and the general field of Asian studies, Asians could make a significant contribution to knowledge and at the same time enrich and broaden their own cultural heritage.

Dr. Li reemphasized the points made in his paper, noting that Asian studies programs could be established on a firm linguistic, cultural, and historical base with the application of a varied combination of social science disciplines.

The ingredients of the interdisciplinary social science approach in this field include the quantification of concepts and data; the comparative study of other societies, and the qualitative evaluation of data obtained. Dr. Li noted that contemporary Chinese studies had developed differently from traditional Sinology studies, which were largely carried out in the mold of the cultural heritage. The newly developed Chinese studies stressed quantification of data and comparative study; e.g., comparison of national growth and income of China and India.

Dr. Li stressed that Asian area studies programs have hardly begun in Asian universities. The reasons for this late start involve the colonial heritage of many countries in the area with the concomitant orientation of scholarship to the metropolitan powers. In addition, the slow development of the social sciences reflects the academic traditions of the metropolitan powers. New governments after independence have not fully appreciated the value of research and the universities have lacked a research orientation. Most universities are actually four-year colleges devoted solely to teaching, with the site of graduate study reserved for the metropolitan powers.

Nevertheless, the future is bright and the situation favorable to the development of the social sciences, humanities, and area studies. Dr. Li noted that Asian countries are beginning to assert their national interests, and the need for area studies programs in serving these national interests is increasingly accepted. The work in Chinese area studies on the part of Indian and Japanese universities is an example of this relation between area studies programs and national interest. At the same time, there is growing awareness of the importance of social sciences studies and of the value of graduate programs in area studies to the progressive development of a university. This awareness has led to the creation of a wide variety of research institutes.

Dr. Li pointed out the need for inter-university cooperation within a country, within the region, between one Asian university and one Western university, and between a consortium of universities in a Western country and one Asian university. He went on to point out various lessons that have been learned from the experience of cooperation between Asian and Western universities. It is of vital necessity that Western scholars assisting in Asian study programs in Asian universities be of outstanding caliber and that they be integrated into the university program of the Asian host country. If the Western scholar is not integrated into the university and does not work closely with his Asian colleagues, the loss to both the Western scholar and, more particularly, his Asian counterparts will be marked.

Dr. Li briefly touched upon some of the forms such inter-university regional cooperation might take. He noted the value of occasional social science conferences in which prominent social science scholars of both the West and Asia participate. There is also a need for summer seminars or workshops in which faculty members from different universities meet to discuss selected areas of social science research. Dr. Li also spoke of the need for a research clearinghouse mechanism, an interchange between universities at both the faculty and student level, and the undertaking of joint research projects of common interest to faculty members of several universities.

Dr. Li ended his presentation by stating that the private foundations had a significant contribution to make to the development of area studies programs at this point as it would take some time to educate governments to the need and value of such programs. Ultimately, such programs would be supported from national budgets.

Discussion

DEAN COWEN, Dr. Li, and MR. HITCH discussed the issue of priorities and the problems of striking a balance in filling needs to strengthen basic teaching disciplines at the undergraduate level and to encourage research in the social sciences on the part of faculty at the graduate level. It was agreed that it was necessary to redress in a constructive way the past imbalance between teaching and research. At the same time, it was recognized that one means of strengthening weak undergraduate teaching was to encourage research related to teaching needs that would improve the quality of teaching. Research carried out on the part of social science faculties will naturally strengthen and improve the quality of these faculties and result in higher teaching performance. In the legal field, as well, it is understood that the teaching of law cannot be improved without legal research directed towards a penetrating analysis of law in relation to the society in which it operates. However, it was emphasized by all three participants that for the relationship of teaching and research to be meaningful and productive, research institutes must be integrated into the university structure and must not be independent of the universities.

DR. STERLING asked that the participants consider the value of individual research versus team research and the implications of research and area institutes for the deployment of faculty and teaching responsibilities.

DR. KIRK said the problem of assuring that research and area studies institutes are productive on the one hand and do not weaken the university system on the other was a vital one. He said he felt certain requirements were the sine qua non of a productive relationship. Each professor connected with an institute must also be a member of an existing department in the university. The institutes in question must have separate financing; i.e., they must be funded outside of normal departmental budgets. They must also have effective directors to coordinate their teaching and research programs. Dr. Li added that there should be no separate appointments for research versus teaching faculties and that the institutes should combine both faculty research and postgraduate teaching.

DR. THOMPSON raised another related question concerning the development of Asian studies programs. He noted that it was of crucial importance to determine the timing of launching such programs. He suggested it might be of value to strengthen individual departments first and then move into an area studies program, for to begin the other way around might well result in a sacrifice of the progressive development of individual departments.

Dr. Li said that although there was no substitute for individual research there was value in a team approach, especially in the field of Asian studies. The team approach emphasized interdisciplinary research by bringing together a group of scholars with common research interests in a particular area. The creation of research and Asian studies institutes contributed to the development and expansion of the interdisciplinary approach.

MR. ROBINSON raised the question whether enough consideration had been given to the need for an area studies interdisciplinary approach to the study of one's own Asian country rather than a group of countries or area. There was a great need for the interdisciplinary approach being directed by national universities to expanding knowledge of the country itself. From this initial emphasis, a wider investigation into problems and relationships with neighboring countries and the area might develop.

It was also pointed out that with the lack of personnel resources and dependence to a large degree on government budgets priority might, at the initial stages, tend to be given to the study of one's own country.

However, there was a consensus regarding the need for Asian studies programs within Asia in order to overcome the lack of knowledge and understanding of one's Asian neighbors on the part of Asians themselves. Such knowledge would make a significant contribution to the healthy, constructive, and non-disruptive development of the area as greater understanding was achieved. At the same time, such Asian studies programs would, through their research products, contribute to general knowledge.

The role of regional institutes was discussed at some length. Dr. Li said that he viewed such institutes with certain reservations. He felt they could be useful only in preparatory training, research clearing-house, and seminar and conference functions. He felt intensive in-depth research in the social sciences must be carried out by universities. Dr. Li said further that with the paucity of research expertise in the Asian area, the main emphasis should be on strengthening the research capabilities of Asian universities. In this context, regional institutes, if devoted primarily to research, were perhaps a luxury.

In this connection, DR. WADE briefly outlined the scope and functions of the proposed Institute of Higher Education and Development. The idea for this Institute grew out of recommendations of a study jointly supported by UNESCO and the International Association of Universities, with financial assistance from the Ford Foundation, on the inter-relationship of higher education and national development. Dr. Wade remarked that the purpose of the Institute was not to duplicate existing efforts but rather to serve identifiable needs of the region. He said the principal functions of the proposed Institute would involve provision of a statistical clearinghouse service; research training facilities, research workshops and seminars, and publications including information concerning on-going research carried out by universities in the Southeast Asian region. Dr. Wade said the Institute project had been endorsed by the IAU in its Tokyo meeting, by the Ministers of Education group in its recent meeting in Bangkok, and by UNESCO at its recently completed biennial General Conference. He pointed out that the Institute would be autonomous and not a UNESCO or IAU Institute. Its major participants would be representatives of Southeast Asian governments and institutions of higher learning. In all likelihood, private foundations, among other sources, would be approached to assist the establishment of the Institute. When funds covering needs for a five-year period had been raised, the formal implementation of the Institute would be initiated. However, the Institute is a long-range program with no cut-off date planned.

Head Table--The Opening Dinner

Getting Set for the Conference Photograph

DR NADE
DR CHIEN
DR QURESHI
MR. SCHWANTES
DR THOMPS

Dr. Chien, Dr. Qureshi, Dr. Schwantes, Dr. Thompson
Dr. Williams, Mr. Smith

Mr. Fleishhacker, Mr. Pierson, Dr. Chien
(In background, Mr. Uhalley, Mr. Hoover)

A Light Moment Around the Conference Table

DR THOMPSON

Dr. Thompson, Dr. Williams, Mr. Smith
(In background, Mr. Pierson, Mr. Page, Mr. Yuan)

Dr. Kirk, Dr. Li, Dr. Sterling

DR.WADE
MR.HEGGIE
MR.SMITH

Mr. Smith, Dr. Wade, Mr. Heggie
(In background, Mr. Overton, Dr. Metz, Dr. McCrea)

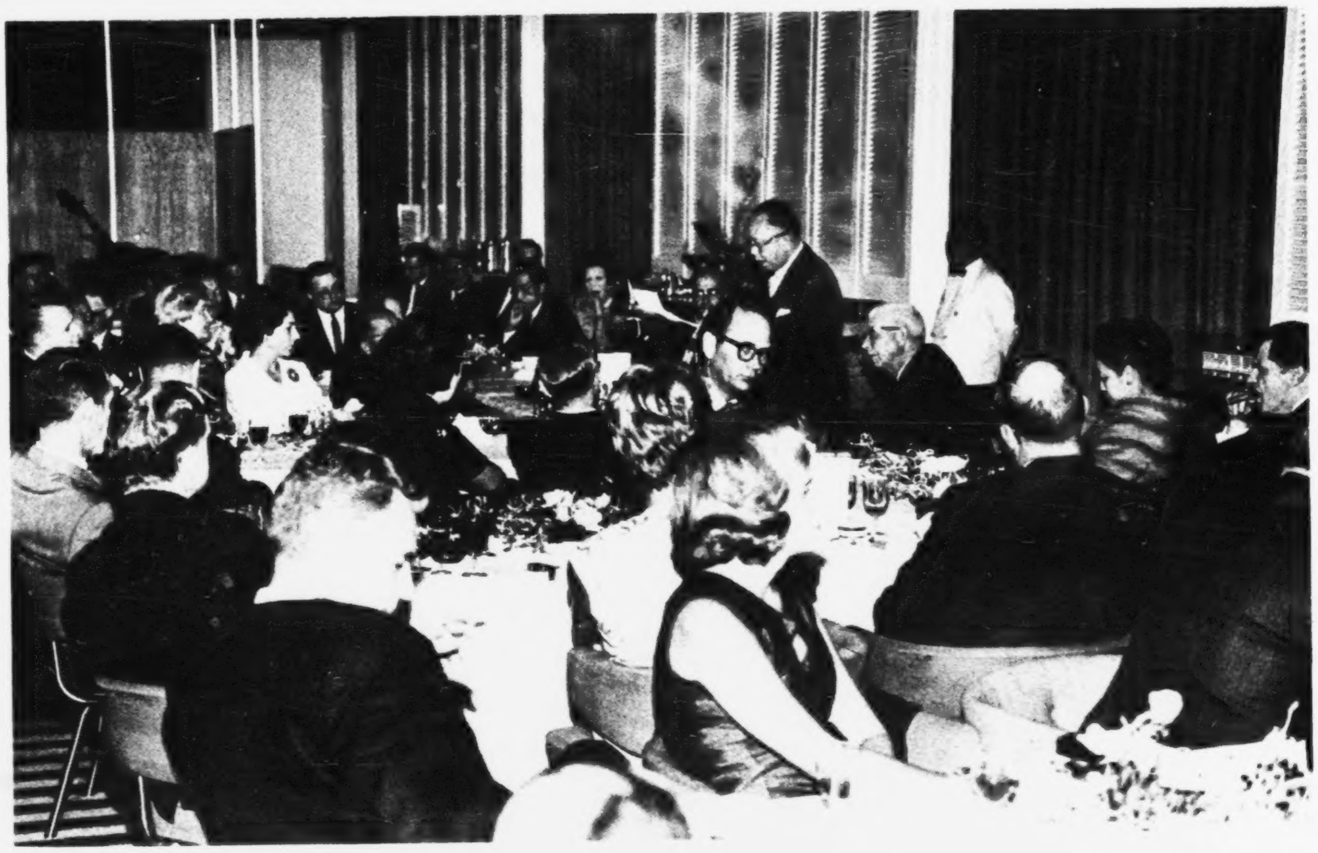
DR COWEN
MR STEWART

Mr. Pike, Vice-Chancellor Robinson, Dean Cowen

DR OKOCHI
MR STEWART

Dr. Okochi, Mr. Stewart, Dr. Sterling, Dr. Qureshi
(In background, Mr. Paul, Mr. Yuan)

Secretary Romulo Addresses the Closing Dinner
(Mrs. Romulo seated between Mr. Smith and Dr. Williams)



An Attentive Audience at the Closing Dinner

PANEL DISCUSSION

"Opportunities for Inter-University Cooperation, as Seen by Asia Foundation Representatives"

The first part of the Panel discussion consisted of presentations by three of The Asia Foundation's Representatives. Mr. David I. Steinberg, Representative in Korea, focused upon the university's role as innovator in bringing about change in society.

Mr. Steinberg's Presentation

An Asia Foundation Representative has a rewarding opportunity to reflect on universities in Asia and their contribution to their own societies, to the needs of other societies, and to modernization (or development), both, as Vice-Chancellor Robinson remarked, as a process and as a goal.

Perhaps one of the hallmarks of the developmental process is the interest of the society as a whole in the process of innovation and change. Attitudes towards the possibility of change and towards change itself are one of the important attributes of a society in the process of modernization. With these attitudes comes flexibility of response to new challenges and needs. A university has a unique role and indeed a unique responsibility in this key area of modernization. Inter-university cooperation is one means by which this role can be reinforced, problems and successes shared, and the process of modernization assisted. That is not to say that the University does not have other functions as a protector and transmitter of values and traditions. But in my few minutes I would like to concentrate on the question of innovation both on the theoretical and practical levels.

If we can agree that one of the essential characteristics of a university is the ability to innovate, perhaps the first area on which attention might be focused is inter-university studies of the process of innovation itself, through symposia and research, and the problems which several societies have had in enabling this to take place. Universities have had more experience than any other institutions in attempting to deal with this problem, because they often have been presented with students who have spent long years in rote learning, only to try to change what is sometimes an ingrained pattern. By sharing problems and methodology, universities could be performing an important public service to their own and other societies as well.

One problem which occurs in all societies and cultures throughout Asia is to come to grips with defining the very complicated process which we so loosely refer to as development or modernization. It seems to me that this is a salient point where inter-university cooperation is not only feasible, but indeed very practical and necessary. Developmental theory has grown very slowly in the West. It has not, in fact, kept pace with the material assistance provided by various nations. This tardy recognition of the complexity of the developmental process is one reason why there has been some dissatisfaction with some foreign programs. But this should not be surprising, for until now those who have formulated developmental theory have been working with problems alien to their own experience and looking at this process as outsiders. I think that Asian university staff are in fact in a much better position than scholars from the Western world to formulate theories of development, which the West has only recently come to realize are infintely more complex than previously thought. They understand better than anyone else the complexities of their own societies and the problems which they face. Hopefully, they can make a contribution to international knowledge by producing, through inter-university academic symposia, more sophisticated and realistic conceptualizations of the developmental process in a manner far more sensitively attuned to actual conditions than can their colleagues who have worked on these theories in the West. If this could be done, social scientists throughout the world would be in their debt. One such program which did have some impact on the problem among scholars in the United States, Korea, and other Asian countries was the International Conference on the Problems of Modernization in Asia which was held at Korea University in June of 1965. While it did not succeed in solving the problems in this field, it was a useful step in more carefully delineating the issues.

A more practical area, but again a relatively new one, is inter-university studies of the problems which most Asian nations are facing in the process of urbanization with its resultant social, economic, and political problems, and the breakdown of traditional social and familiar patterns. Inter-university intellectual resources could be brought to bear on considering the causes and results of this process, and means to alleviate present and future needs. In a sense the developing nations are in a unique position, through careful comparative study and sharing of experience, to avoid the dire situations which have almost become insoluble in the West.

The universities, through comparative studies and joint research, may be able to contribute both to clarifying old problems and meeting the new challenges which their nations now face. Innovative experiments in joint research and study might be carried out on an inter-national, a regional, and an intra-national level. There is an urgent need for closer academic contacts, paralleling the closer political and economic relationships which have developed in Asia. To take an example from the country of my most immediate concern, Korea, there have been expanded trade and diplomatic ties with other states in Asia, about which Korea knows even less than she does about the United States or Europe. Cultural agreements have been signed with Thailand and Malaysia, but have not been implemented. It is hoped that the introduction of Southeast Asian studies in Korea for the first time, through some faculty and student exchange, will lead to greater understanding and interchange between these Asian nations. Vice-Chancellor Li has so ably outlined the need for such studies in the paper which we have just heard.

Northeast Asia lends itself to a particular form of inter-university cooperation. It is a geographical area in which many important institutions and attitudes have had a common source, the classical Chinese tradition. Yet each of the nations in this region, and in some respects Vietnam as well, has evolved a separate and unique response to these institutions and attitudes. It could be very important to explore, through inter-university joint research programs, the institutional changes which have occurred when a foreign institution was transplanted to another soil. Why did one nation respond to the same stimuli quite differently than another? Such cooperative research would throw much light on history, but it would also point out as well possible future areas of change which may occur as various Western institutions are introduced. The traditional dispute-settling mechanisms throughout the area might be a fruitful field for research, as Vice-Chancellor Li intimated in his discussion of Dean Cowen's paper. Also of importance is cultural diffusion throughout the area. A project now before The Asia Foundation is a study by Asian universities together with the Smithsonian Institution of the material culture of the Yellow Sea region, involving joint research in anthropology and physical culture in Korea, Japan, Taiwan, Okinawa, and hopefully some day in the Shantung Peninsula of China.

But intra-national university cooperation should not be ignored. In some ways, cooperation at this level is most crucial. Too often in many societies there is little if any lateral communication between universities on their own national problems. When such needs are felt, universities might group together institutionally and/or staff individually to discuss their own problems and needs. Three examples have recently occurred in Korea which point out what might be done. For the first time in independent Korea the agricultural colleges, the law colleges, and the law professors have each grouped together to discuss common problems and goals.

So far from the abstract to the very practical values of inter-university cooperation are apparent. The benefits to be derived from such cooperation are many, and since time is short, all resources should be combined to share and solve common problems.

In contrast to this account of the university as innovator, the next panelist, James H. Noyes, the Foundation's Representative in Ceylon, concentrated upon the more traditional role of the university in the following presentation.

Mr. Noyes' Presentation

As always, problems and their discussion illuminate needs and opportunities. One of the threads of similarity in our consideration of these many countries is the matter of tradition as a continuing variable that in some cases must be nurtured strongly, and in other cases be reduced in influence to liberate new forces of thought. Many examples come to mind. We are apparently unanimous that this is a golden mean rather than an either/or situation. Dean Cowen cites the gulf between the law and the people in Korea. Surely this gulf is a manifestation of social tradition and historic conditioning that must blend with, but not give way wholly to, a new tradition. Dr. Qureshi reminds us that in Pakistan urgencies toward economic development have temporarily overshadowed the position of the humanities. This is not surprising, when it is remembered, as he says, that traditional religion and culture were long held in contempt. Recovery of national dignity is as inseparable from true economic advancement as is cultural renaissance. In Ceylon the pendulum swung the other way and now, in what is surely a most dramatic and decisive total education reform, the post-independence preoccupation with ancient languages and history is giving way to a more utilitarian emphasis. In India the "alien implantations" referred to in Vice-Chancellor Robinson's comments have in some cases become centers of major scholarship with critical relevance to the development process. Many traditions have thus been grafted and synthesized with ultimate success.

The examples of Ceylon and Pakistan, so relatively close in geography and yet rather far apart in terms of the position of present higher education emphasis, suggest regional opportunities. There seem to be great corrective forces always at work reducing disparities between countries in a balancing process. But we all recognize that the process is not automatic. Obviously, much will depend on the vigor and boldness of universities as they overcome linguistic and other inhibitors. As many speakers have noted, it is often the universities alone that can provide the correcting and cross-traditional fertilizing regional cooperation that, so to speak, may save each situation from the doom of its own narrowness.

The burdens are indeed crushing. Universities are asked to preserve all the best of the past and yet help generate, convey, and harmonize the exploding innovative contributions of modern knowledge. In most cases their restless and unappreciative creatures called students may offer resistance simultaneous with the need to placate parents, trustees, government ministries, or faculty interests. It is perhaps the relative provincialism of all these problems that insures that outside cooperation will never again be an afterthought or a mere appendage on the university body. The indispensable perspective can now so often be supplied from outside. I think of Yale in the late 1940's where the presence of one brilliant visiting Indian professor did so much to strengthen the hands of those faculty who were pleading for area study programs and trying to generate student enthusiasm for their goal. The dimensions of modern knowledge as well as the speed of modern communication suggest ever more continuing links between centers of higher learning.

In assessing the interplay of traditions we have agonized a good bit over brain drain as a heavy price paid in the regional exchange process. In Ceylon this problem is acute indeed. Givers of fellowships and the institutions directly affected have reached the point where they would probably sever right arms and hold them as bonds against the return of scholarship recipients if this were medically feasible. But I was struck very much by Dr. Okochi's remarks on brain drain. He said that the journalists of Japan did not understand the problem and the needs of the young scholars for like-minded colleagues and suitable facilities. Perhaps I have shared some of the journalists' lack of understanding. Many brilliant Ceylonese are abroad, but many are in Africa or other areas of great need rather than enjoying more comfortable posts elsewhere. I know of one who has been in the United States some years, but who will soon return to head a major land development and colonization project. I know of one who works in the International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines. Another, a distinguished young cardiologist, works in a remote area of Iran. The cost of all this is great, as we recognize, and no matter which university, which foundation, or even which government, we are all poor in relation to satisfying the needs. It is always hard for the poor to be generous. But were not universities really begun by people seeking continuing contact with like-minded colleagues? Are we not all really engaged in laying the foundation for more and more supra-national development as a corrective to economic and political problems? Is it possible that some of these brain drainees may constitute a base of leadership for the transcendentally critical regional cooperation ahead?

The third panelist, Mr. Douglas Murray, Representative in Singapore, moved from the broader discussions of Messrs. Steinberg and Noyes to a more immediate consideration of specific administrative requirements in promoting cooperation among Asian universities.

Mr. Murray's Presentation

The previous speakers have discussed various problem areas in which inter-university cooperation has taken place or seems potentially valuable. However, they have also demonstrated a very considerable diversity of interests--in fact sufficient diversity that I wonder if there actually are abundant areas for mutual cooperation between Asian universities. With this doubt in mind, it seems particularly important that we not consider university cooperation as an "end in itself," nor assume that staff/student exchanges should be undertaken for their own sake. Such cooperation probably can be successful only as it directly relates to particular problems for which individual universities are seeking solutions. Both Vice-Chancellor Robinson and Dr. Romulo have commented on the value of limited, discreet forms of cooperation, such as bi-lateral exchange programs, sub-regional rather than Asian-wide organizations, which have developed in response to local needs and utilized existing regional resources. I agree, but further suggest that, as prior conditions for sustained regional cooperation, universities must (a) identify clearly their own problems, and (b) have a broad awareness of the existing or potential regional resources available for their solution.

Fundamental to such regional awareness is a continual flow of communication between institutions. The current situation, in which communication occurs primarily between *individuals* or *departments* on topics of momentary, personal interest is very inadequate. In these circumstances, communication ceases immediately with a shift of personnel, or with the decline of a particular scholar's interest in a subject. It leaves no legacy for others to utilize, permits no accumulation of background knowledge about other institutions' needs or resources as a permanent pool of information. Some *institutionalized* means of inter-university communication seems to me a necessary precedent for any significant inter-university cooperation. Such a mechanism must somehow be a part of each university itself, not simply of some outside "regional" body.

To take an example, we can consider social science research as one area of potential cooperation. Such research is expensive, particularly the development of adequate libraries. Yet, research and research facilities which have direct bearing upon economic, social, or political problems in one country often can be useful in others. I therefore strongly endorse Dr. Li Choh-ming's suggestion about coordination of social science research activities within a region. Ideally, several universities could confer together to *allocate* broad research areas among themselves, to determine select fields in which each would make a special effort at developing libraries, research staff, and equipment, and to keep each other regularly informed about ongoing projects and local resources. It might be much more economical for a scholar in Manila, for example, to travel to Singapore to obtain research materials, professional guidance, or use certain lab facilities, than for his own university to finance all the additional resources required in his field. This process could reduce the problem of expensive duplication of effort. But equally important, it could substantially increase the *bargaining power* of the cooperating universities in obtaining financial support, visiting scholars, etc., from international organizations--and perhaps even from local governments and private sources. With such coordination under way, and joint projects devised, it would be much easier for universities to present a strong case for assistance to the rest of the world. We have heard of various "consortia" of American universities working together in programs of international assistance. Would it not be possible, similarly, to develop consortia of *recipient* universities, in which resources would be pooled, and a more effective use of external aid thereby made? Such arrangements would be particularly dependent upon regular, institutionalized forms of inter-university communication.

Unfortunately, however, neither communication nor cooperation spring spontaneously from the need, regardless of how widely felt it is. They require substantial effort, and considerable administrative time. Yet a serious problem facing Asian universities today apparently is that of "under-administration." There simply are too many jobs needing to be done by too few people. Despite Parkinson's Law (which I should particularly respect, coming from Parkinson's former intellectual home of Singapore), I believe that most Asian universities legitimately require additional administrative officers, a need which is heightened if new international activities are to be undertaken. Many U. S. universities, for example, have separate, heavily staffed offices, with exclusive responsibility for managing international assistance programs; yet recipient institutions are supposed to negotiate for, and absorb, such assistance without a single person, academic or administrative, free to devote regular time to it. Certain Asian universities, notably in Singapore, already have appointed Public Relations, or "Development" officers. Would it not be equally possible to establish "International Relations" officers, with responsibility for liaison with other universities in Asia and the West, publicizing his own institution's academic developments, and keeping abreast of research and regional resources relevant to local needs? Such a person would be responsible for coordinating and managing both inter-university communication and the cooperation which it hopefully would produce.

In conclusion, while this conference has discussed many areas in which university cooperation seems advisable, we have not considered the technical problems of how this can be done. The fundamental issue of gearing up each university's administration for institutionalized communication and cooperation deserves high priority in our deliberations.

Discussion

MR. JOHNSON pointed out that in some countries there is a problem of inter-university coordination and cooperation within their own borders. In the Philippines, for example, where 90% of education is in the private sector, there is a great quality control problem. This is being dealt with by a number of organizations similar to those that exist in the United States, as described by Dr. Kirk. However, there is still a need for more cooperation between the public and private schools as well as among private schools themselves.

The recent formulation of an exchange program between the Ateneo University in Manila and Sophia University in Japan, an important development, led to further reflection on cooperative area studies programs.

DR. OKOCHI noted that until recently most Asian countries had been engaged in faculty and student exchanges only between themselves and Western countries. There were few intra-regional exchanges of this kind. He believed that such programs should be established. He noted, however, that in some European countries so-called Japanologists are the persons who are interested in some particular features of prewar Japan. They do not concern themselves with the general features of post-war, modern Japan. And they pose, and are regarded, as the leading figures of Japanology in Europe. This is a situation which needs to be rectified. Area studies programs require the participation of Asian scholars in cooperative projects with the Western scholars. He also stressed that area studies programs should include a number of inter-disciplinary studies. These were necessary measures that if not followed would result only in superficiality. Thus, while area studies are necessary and should be set up among Asian universities, these programs should avoid the traditional approach which characterizes many Western programs; that is, those which fail to utilize comparative studies and which lack a sound methodological basis. In Japan, it was noted, regional cooperative programs are being seriously studied by the principal national universities. Dr. Okochi observed that the regional programs should not be limited to the social sciences but should include the natural sciences as well. Also, he believed that the development of regional programs should be paralleled by continued cooperation on a broader international level as well.

DR. QURESHI indicated that the need is generally recognized for area studies. The question, he said, is how to go about it, especially considering the limited resources of Asian universities. He stressed the importance for students and faculty to visit the areas of their specialty and of the need to deal with the many disciplinary aspects of a given area of study. The best method of meeting this need might be an increase in the number of travel grants for this purpose through outside assistance.

By way of example, Dr. Qureshi noted the excellent Urdu program at the University of Karachi in which courses are available to visiting students of the language that are designed to help them better understand the nuances of the language. This program has produced Chinese students, for instance, who have mastered Urdu.

DR. CHIEN stressed the need for adequate preparatory work in order to guarantee the success of area studies programs. The universities should have experience in a particular field around which an area program might be developed. He also noted the need for persons who know the languages of other participating countries and indicated that this is a limiting feature in the development of cooperative area programs.

DR. SCHWANTES observed that The Asia Foundation has always tried to follow the principle of building on strength and of trying to be responsive to particular needs in its assistance to the development of projects; and that this principle applied to regional or area studies programs as well.

The point was made that there were some excellent Asian universities that were fortunately staffed with many able scholars. Nevertheless there was a tendency for outstanding men, identified in cooperative projects, to be attracted to the West, thus impairing the progress at their own Asian universities, particularly the smaller ones.

DR. THOMPSON, by way of summary, said that the session had been illuminating in touching upon important key issues. He noted that the university does contribute to development both as innovator and in providing continuity. He believed the idea of a consortium worth further consideration.

MR. STEWART stressed, in a closing comment, a theme of the Conference that the role of Asian universities was not limited to developing Asia alone but that there was an expectation that Asia would be making its contribution to the rest of the world as well.

LUNCHEON MEETING FOR UNIVERSITY HEADS

December 21

Hosts: Grayson L. Kirk, J. E. Wallace Sterling, Charles J. Hitch

Dr. Sterling spoke informally from the following paper:

University Administration in International Perspective

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

I once studied under an Oxford-trained historian who was gifted not only in scholarship but also in turning a phrase. Frequently, when discussing political or other leaders who were confronted with a difficult decision where competing interests were involved, he would say of that leader: "He found himself, as it were, on the horns of a dilemma: a most uncomfortable position, gentlemen; a most uncomfortable position."

This afternoon I find myself somewhat similarly situated. Given the general topic of this Conference, much of what needed saying has been said--and said well. The apparatus of cooperation--by seminar, by exchange, by conference--has had attention. The problems inherent in national differences and language barriers have been recognized. The more urgent priorities of developing countries have been related to the more long-range, perhaps less utilitarian, substance of education as a thing in itself. The role of particular disciplines, such as economics, law, science, the humanities, social sciences, has been explored; and not least of all the obligations and opportunities of public service have been illustrated and appropriately defended. Compliments to the participants are in order, and most particularly are compliments and thanks in order to the staff of The Asia Foundation.

The dilemma on whose horns I now find myself impaled is this: With so much having been said so well, and with President Romulo's concluding address yet to come, what is there for me to say or suggest? I feel, if I may change the figure, somewhat like the tail of a kite--an appendage which cannot escape being an accessory.

My initial assignment was to discuss "University Administration in International Perspective." So let me begin with that. If I have any thesis in what I am about to say, it is this: that the chief executive officer of a university has to lick his local problems before he can honestly or productively engage his university in issues of national or international cooperation.

When I am at home it seems to me that I have more than enough difficulty just administering a university, let alone keeping it in any kind of perspective, international or otherwise. But when I am in Hong Kong, it seems to me that I am a quite superior university administrator and that my critics among students, faculty and alumni are quite wrong. In my case, therefore, being in Hong Kong is a most agreeable way to place university administration in international perspective.

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Everyone here is an administrator. I risk carrying coals to Newcastle, therefore, in advancing the reminder that administration involves a complexity of factors:

a) the acquisition, management, and allocation of money--vulgar, perhaps, but necessary.

b) the recruiting, employment, and deployment of people--and may I say that as yet I have no expectation that any generation of computers will accurately diagnose human pride and prejudice, or produce a foolproof treatment for temperament, or perform the alchemy of transmuting human folly into wisdom; this will remain the task of the administrator.

c) the application of ideas and their end products to the service of society.

d) and, on the part of the administrator, an openness and fairness of mind that would tax a Solomon, a patience which would make Job seem impulsive, and a physical durability which a Spartan might emulate.

Administration involves all these factors: money, people, ideas and their application, fortitude, patience, wisdom, and durability. In universities, as we all know, these administrative factors are supposed to function productively in a community of learning. To make them function so within any university is not a simple task; how much less simple among universities.

I live and work in a country in which there are more than 2,000 colleges and universities. They differ in organization, size, financial strength, and quality. As one university president, with a gift for epigram, once put it: "We have good schools for good students and bad schools for bad students." These colleges and universities belong to a variety of associations. There is no unified formal cooperation among them. They do not speak with one voice on educational matters, or on any other matter except one: each would agree with all the others that they could use more money. The differences which exist among them place limits on cooperation, as this Conference has recognized. Any realistic discussion of the possibilities of educational cooperation on an international scale must recognize institutional differences--differences which are real and which euphoric utterances about international cooperation will not verbalize out of existence.

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

If one is to have perspective, I suggest that one must recognize that organized effort at educational cooperation internationally is of recent vintage. Throughout the first four decades of this century, international interaction in education was limited essentially to visiting professorships, foreign study by individual students, and a few ad hoc, worthy, but somewhat sentimental relationships between pairs of universities of different nationality. The burgeoning of this interaction has come since World War II[1]--that is to say, within the past twenty years.

I mention that time span not only to associate it with the burgeoning of more formalized educational programs overseas but also to make the point that very few university administrators have been in office throughout that period. However limited our years of service may be, they have been spent in the period when educational interaction has burgeoned internationally. It follows that if any group of university administrators may be expected to have international perspective, we belong to that group, but that our perspective is short as the lives of universities go.

That this burgeoning has been facilitated by the technology of transport and communication is, I suggest, self-evident. The motivations for this burgeoning are not so self-evident, but they might include the following:

a) the continuation of the pre-war, unprogrammed interest of students and faculty to study and teach abroad.

b) the increased interest of private foundations, individuals, and corporations, as well as governmental agencies, in facilitating such study and teaching with financial assistance.

c) the desire of developing countries to acquire knowledge applicable to their developmental needs and the desire of more advanced countries to learn more about their global neighbors.

d) the sense of humane responsibility or of political advantage which prompts the more developed countries to encourage and nurture programs of aid, including education, to the less developed countries.

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[1] See The International Programs of American Universities, a study by The Institute of Research on Overseas Programs, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1958. Note Table 2D on p. 29.

e) the hope, even the faith, that educational interaction may help to promote peace by enchancing international understanding.

Can one discern a pattern for this interaction which has developed since World War II? I regret very much that I cannot give a broadly based answer to that question. I can endeavor to answer it only in terms of data which relate to the United States.[2] These data support the following observations:

a) that the number of foreign students studying in the United States has grown steadily during the past 15 years.

b) that more of these students are doing graduate work than was the case 10 years ago.

c) that most of these students come from so-called developing countries.

d) that most of them (77% in 1964-65) are men. (The Philippines is an exception.)

e) that preference for fields of study has not varied significantly in the past decade--engineering (22%) and the humanities (20%) being the most popular, but with the third most popular field--natural and physical sciences--making some gain.

f) that there are few United States institutions without some foreign students; but that most of these students cluster in a few colleges and universities. For instance, 47% (in 1964-65) were enrolled in 42 institutions. And it is noteworthy that about 56% of all foreign students doing graduate work were enrolled in some 40 United States universities, and that about 57% of all visiting faculty from overseas were at these same 40 universities.

g) that the number of American students studying abroad is only about 22% of the number of foreign students in the United States, and that 60% of these American students study in Europe, 14% in other

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[2] See Open Doors, Report on International Exchange, Institute of International Education, 1965.

North American countries, mainly Canada and Mexico, 12% in Central and South America, 9% in the Far East, and only token numbers in the Near and Middle East, in Africa and in Oceania. And American students also tend to cluster in selected institutions--73% of them were studying in 46 universities overseas.

h) that American faculty members go mainly to Europe (about 50%), 16% to the Far East, 11% to Latin America, 8% to the Near and Middle East.

But the data from which I have drawn observations are manifestly incomplete. They do not reveal the numbers of students or faculty from Asia, Africa, Latin America, and elsewhere who are studying and teaching abroad in colleges and universities other than those in the United States.

Now let me move toward a conclusion. What has been the impact on university administrators of this growing educational interaction across national boundaries?

One thing seems clear: universities have not been equally involved and therefore have not been equally affected. The perspective of a university administrator may vary, therefore, with the degree of his institution's involvement. I think that I may fairly say that the three American universities represented here by Mr. Kirk, Mr. Hitch and myself have been quite extensively involved.

In the United States, at least, the international reach of education has led to the formalizing of new programs for both undergraduate and graduate students. Within any university where this has occurred, administrative accommodations have had to be made. The programs have to be financed--which means an additional line-item in the annual budget; they have to be supervised, which means an assignment to a university officer with appropriate staff.

The programs themselves--not least of all those involving undergraduates--have an impact on the home campus. Students returning from periods of study abroad are likely to assert that curricula need reform, that library resources are deficient, and that administrators are less perceptive of these shortcomings than they should be. Nor do these students lavish sympathy on the administrator who pleads the need of time and money to effect the improvements they so urgently advocate.

Those of us who have substantial numbers of foreign students on our campuses know also that they cannot and should not be taken for granted. These students may need special language tutoring, help in finding a place to live, an international house where they may foregather and mingle with each other and with the native-born students of the host university. Community committees may need to be organized to make the foreign student feel welcome. Whatever is done by way of welcome and accommodation has to be organized, coordinated and supervised--all of which involves thought, effort, time and personnel.

But not only students are involved. Faculty members and officers of universities go visiting--some to teach or do research, others to discuss all manner of university problems. The length of the visit varies. Some visits are so brief and unplanned as virtually to guarantee that the time was wasted--politely and pleasantly, one hopes, but nevertheless wasted. Other visits are planned and prepared for, and of sufficient duration to be fruitful. I have been involved in both kinds of visits, both as guest and as host, and herewith declare an absolute preference for the latter kind.

One concluding observation: If the chief executive officer is to gain perspective on cooperation among universities, he must find time to participate in the interaction among universities, both nationally and internationally. This means that he must have at home an executive infrastructure of staff and faculty as well as an effective, up-dated system of institutional government. The need for these is presently apparent and will, in my judgment, intensify as universities become increasingly involved in interaction with one another and with the national societies which they endeavor to serve.

Discussion

The post-luncheon discussion of Dr. Sterling's paper was "off the record."

CLOSING ADDRESS

THE FUTURE OF ASIAN UNIVERSITIES

CARLOS P. ROMULO

Secretary of Education, Republic of the Philippines;
concurrently President, The University of the Philippines

CLOSING ADDRESS

We are closing tonight a successful conference. The formal papers and the discussion adhered closely to the theme: "University Cooperation and Asian Development." At this juncture in the history of the region, no more timely subject could have been chosen for the Asian universities to examine and analyze, and the various topics assigned to the discussants dovetailed with each other so well that they had to spark new ideas from the participants that gave added value to the papers prepared in advance by the speakers. We must, therefore, congratulate Dr. Haydn Williams, the President of The Asia Foundation, and his staff for having made such excellent preparation for the conference which revealed their intimate knowledge of this area of the world and their close identification with our needs and problems.

Reasons for Success of Conference

Why do I say that this has been a successful conference?

(1) Because in discussing University Cooperation and Asian Development, we focussed attention, as Dr. Kenneth E. Robinson, our genial host, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Hong Kong, has done, on the special vulnerability of the university in an environment of social, cultural, political, and economic change; and he pinpointed the specific needs for cooperation among universities within a region in such spheres as the sociology of education, academic intercourse with special emphasis on promoting greater experience of teaching and research in universities of different types and developments; and for links and association in the form of direct and continuous staff interchange between departments or research centers or between groups of universities in a developed country and a particular group in a developing area.

(2) Because specific cases of regional cooperation such as ASAIHL (Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning) and SEAMEC (Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Council) were analyzed as to their usefulness and effectiveness as samples of how regional cooperation among universities can be carried out in relation to the development of their respective countries in particular, and the region as a whole.

(3) Because the particular problem of Asian students and professionals going to the United States and remaining there instead of returning to their countries was discussed in depth and specific solutions were advanced.

(4) Because the role of Japanese universities in fostering the remarkable development of Japan in relation to its universities was highlighted during the conference and lessons may be derived from it by the universities in the region. It was also noteworthy that the idea of Japan joining actively in regional cooperative efforts to share with the other Asian nations its affluence and advanced technology was suggested in an appeal made during the conference.

(5) Because the successful binational arrangements between the universities of Taiwan and the United States were ably discussed and by being brought up for discussion in the conference may prove to be an example for other affluent and highly developed nations in Asia and Europe to profit by.

(6) Because the instances of public service, so wide-ranging, both nationally and internationally, by the University of California are of such significance and importance that not only is a standard set for Asian and other universities but also it is shown what a university can do beyond teaching and research.

(7) Because the experience of American universities in international cooperation as competently discussed in the conference revealed important findings, among others that for reasons of personal and academic maturity and career direction student exchange is more valuable on the graduate than on the undergraduate level, and there must be caution in considering international exchange as a general panacea.

(8) Because attention was given to the proper estimate that should be given to the needs of a given society. New technological discoveries often resulted in estimates of manpower needs being unrealistic and there is a need to constantly reexamine the output of the educational system in relation to permanent versus changeable short-term requirements. It was pointed out that in preparing leadership elements for their role in technological fields, a general liberal arts and humanities education was necessary if they were to play an imaginative and innovative role and relate their specialties to the over-all needs of their society.

The Asia Foundation, therefore, in sponsoring this conference has, because of what we have discussed in depth these last three days, successfully played the role that its President, Dr. Haydn Williams, aptly defined in his keynote address as the mission of foundations: "The discovery and energizing of ideas and endeavors in fields and in ways which less flexible public and private institutions cannot, more often than not because of the lack of necessary resources which makes innovation and experimentation possible. Foundations can provide this extra margin. They can provide a stimulus and can be energizers of constructive activity."

This The Asia Foundation has achieved in our conference. We are all grateful and we return to our respective countries with better perspectives and broader horizons.

I must confess that when I was first informed of the conference, I was a bit wary about the subject. For to attempt to conceptualize "the university or universities in Asia" has in it the classical precision of a classroom composition. Yet, at the same time, the subject is so rich in ambiguities there is the danger of its eluding a neatly defined approach. The subject seemed to promise a categorical formulation of the universities in Asia, meaning to imply those institutions of higher studies, as universities are known in the West, in their peculiar characteristics within the Asian context. It is like discoursing on one of those tricky syllogisms: human beings as Asians, a formulation of a subject which promises more interest than coherence.

It is a tribute to the participants that no such mistake was made. Differences in organization of the universities in Asia or in their manner of control or government; disparity in emphasis or in the condition of learning were recognized, but as to the object of their interest there was no question: the pursuit of learning, the search for truth and the transmission of knowledge are their primary concern.

The conference successfully isolated a distinction common to all universities in Asia but not shared by institutions of higher learning in the West. It is a common element that unifies Asian universities, to be perceived not so much in their organization or curricular emphasis, but in the aspect of their context: they are all, with the exception of Japan, situated in developing societies. The realities within those societies are significantly different from the context of European or American universities.

Correlation of Education with Indigenous Culture

This matter of context is important and the conference handled it competently. Universities may generally project a condition of intelligence, attitudes, and skills within their own ambience much ahead of society, but they nevertheless address themselves to the national culture itself. Whether it be in the field of legal education, as Dean Zelman Cowen so brilliantly stated in his paper, "The Role of Universities in Legal Development in Asia," or as the Chief Justice of India argues, the need of correlating the content and program of education to indigenous materials and realities is of central consideration. It was also admitted in the discussion that the thinking and values of the studentry and faculty of the Asian universities still propose their programs and schemes in relation to the national culture they serve. Our curricular development plans cannot simply proceed as if we do not know whom we intend to admit to our colleges and institutional units, nor would it be sane if the Asian universities were to devise their curricula as if they were going to accept European students generally. Their curricular and advancement programs have to be related to the peculiar realities of the national culture. And what is true of one Asian university is, I believe, similarly true of the other universities in Asia. Japan, for example, cannot have a university preponderantly intended for Filipino or Thai students.

So it was highlighted in the conference that the context of a university qualifies its general concerns and influences the nature of its academic content and even, to some extent, the manner of administering its academic function.

But again, the conference realized that there is a special way in which the nature of the social or cultural context of the university in Asia conditions its setup. The response of Asian universities to the actualities of society has been characterized by a firm belief that education cannot proceed apart or isolated from social needs. Thus we find institutions of higher learning in our continent centrally engaged in the aspirations of their national societies, emphasizing the sort of training and knowledge that are directly demanded by them. For instance, Dr. Wallace Sterling, the distinguished President of Stanford University, said it was his impression that the leadership in many developing countries felt that a general liberal education did not meet the specialized needs of a developing society and it was felt that there should be more emphasis on technical and professional education rather than on the so-called liberal arts and the humanities. This perception is also shared by our esteemed colleague, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Karachi, Pakistan, Dr. Qureshi. My own field of specialization and interest being also in the humanities, I am willing to participate in his despair concerning the increasing popularity of science and technology over humanities subjects. I fully agree with him that, together with the accommodation of science and technology in what used to be essentially liberalistic and humanist concerns of universities, our technical expertise must be pervaded with the spirit of humanism. Nevertheless, I see, too, the necessity of scientism and technology in the social and economic realities of our societies.

Thus, we note a tendency to orient those courses outside the physical and natural sciences in liberal arts colleges towards a more practical dealing with aspects of politics, institutions, forms of social organizations, and political behavior by subsuming them under the expressive category of the "social sciences."

Some observers have thought this orientation of Asian universities as unique. The justifications are readily admitted: learning must provide the individual the skills that would equip him for life in society, and universities must be sources of skills and abilities which society can utilize in its aspiration to achieve progressive advancement.

Modification of Traditional Elitism

Still, it is not correct to say that Asian universities have been singular in modifying the traditional elitism of institutions of higher learning and making them more centrally responsive to the practical needs of society. In a discussion of university cooperation and Asian development, it is good to recall that the educational philosophy that expressed the necessity of giving greater attention to the correlation of experience and learning and that argued for an increased commerce between society and knowledge had been long articulated by John Dewey. Its impact upon educational institutions has been immense and after the Second World War, it is also timely to recall, the nature and state of learning of Western man became the basis of a great debate, significantly expressed by Sir Charles P. Snow in his controversial paper, Two Cultures and a Revolution. Of course, the terms of the debate go even further than the formulations of Dewey--taking us back to circumstances beyond the 20th century into an instance in Western culture when scientism and the Industrial Revolution were creating their impact upon society and the thinking of mankind. The crisis brought about by the implications of the age of steam and steel was precisely the mainspring of a dispute between two personalities, one a great influence on the educational system of England and the other a controversialist for scientific thought. I refer to the debate between Matthew Arnold and Thomas Huxley.

In examining the situation of Asian universities, I prefer to go back to the terms of the Arnold-Huxley dispute, for the occasion of it was indeed quite analogous to the condition of the context of institutions of higher learning in Asia.

The introduction of the study of the physical sciences in the educational system in the West was rather a belated response to the state of technological equipment of its culture. We all know that technology was not directly derived from the work within Western universities. Of course, technology was founded on the law of the conservation of matter and power, and on a correct interpretation of thermic processes and electrical phenomena, and that James Watt was led into the construction of his new engines after a Newcomen atmospheric engine was brought to him to repair for the Natural Philosophy department of Glasgow University. At any rate, what interests us in Asia is not the determination of cause and effect in the transformation of Western society. What is to the point is to realize that, at least in England, the bloodless revolution of the Industrial Era came from literally the working classes, from the industry of craftsmen like James Watt, from businessmen like Matthew Boulton and John Wilkinson, and from artisans like George Stephenson and Henry Maudslay, and developed outside the capital--in Glasgow and Manchester and Birmingham--leaving London and the universities of Oxford and Cambridge comparatively undisturbed.

What, therefore, was the basis of Huxley's argument? The fact that a status of culture already existed, heavily dependent on technology and looking forward to more discoveries and inventions to realize more progress in other spheres of societies. The university was to function merely in the greater diffusion of knowledge and skills and its central purpose was to be expressed in having its vision geared not merely to the extension of theoretical knowledge, but also to encompass the progressive and practical development of society.

This is an immense concern, all too positive in its suggestion, but not without its effects upon those whom Huxley called derogatorily the "classical Levites," those who held that the civilization of Europe cannot rest on the smog from the steam and the filth emanating from the coal mines. Europe, it was maintained by Arnold, was a confederation of values and intelligences and attitudes and the machine cannot entirely promote this.

The Spirit of Asia's History and Culture

I have taken time to refer to the instance of these opposing attitudes concerning education in a conference such as this where we have to link Asian development with university cooperation because the fact of Asian universities is that, while they have accepted the responsibility of diffusing those values and abilities that make for greater technological and technical competence of society, there is at the same time, increasingly becoming more apparent, the notion that while the interest in science and technology will indeed realize for our societies the sort of advancement they generally need at the present time, science itself cannot subsume what we want to strengthen with the prosperity and freedom that we are trying to achieve. The most immediate thing, it is contended, is the development of our economy and society--the extension of opportunities to the masses who have for centuries endured privations; who have, for long, been kept in ignorance. But the ultimate question, it is further argued, is to see the shape of this expected condition of opportunities and progress in terms of the spirit of our culture and our history, in terms of the individuality of our civilization and our own inherent quality. In short, how to make Asia endure in the same way that Matthew Arnold, shocked by the faith of Huxley in science, had made it his concern to see the civilization of Europe endure.

If this be our present ideal, then there must be a shared concern, or perhaps, an initial consideration, done on the level of inter-university programs among higher institutions in Asia, of what our distinguished colleague, Vice-Chancellor Choh-Ming Li, of the Chinese University of Hong Kong, in his scholarly paper calls the research mission of the University.

Dr. Grayson Kirk, who has given Columbia University, as its president, both fame and prestige, discussed how American universities effectively encouraged inter-university cooperation, making it possible for students of one institution to take courses at another. Dr. Kirk outlined the *raison d'etre* for the 2,600 or so national, regional, and functional organizations concerned with higher education in the United States. Since state control of education results in varying standards, these organizations serve to standardize and improve university curricula. They give the universities some solidarity in their relationships with governmental agencies. They minimize duplication of effort by, for example, the development of library systems with central book depositories which provide for the needs of a cluster of institutions and reduce individual library expenditures.

Insufficient Support to Faculty Exchange

Dr. Kirk also said that one of the basic problems is how to make the best use of the United States' "accumulated experience in higher education in order to best serve the educational needs of developing countries." He emphasized the importance of meetings like the present Asia Foundation-sponsored conference in establishing dialogues in the international educational community. The exchange of ideas and the establishment of accords is easier, he said, at the academic than at the political level, and it is not unrealistic to suppose the influence of educators could reach beyond the academic community to influence national attitudes, and foreign policies.

An important statement was made by Dr. Kenneth W. Thompson, vice-president of Rockefeller Foundation--and we are grateful that he could be with us--when he said that American institutions are not giving sufficient support to the international exchange of faculty, although he noted an increasing number of institutions, particularly the land grant colleges, which recognized the need to wed service and scholarship for the benefit of institutions in developing countries. The situation would not be improved, he felt, until university heads took a personal detailed interest in faculty exchange and made it possible for a professor to spend a year or so abroad without jeopardizing his professional career. There is also a need, he felt, for organizations like the Institute of International Education at the student level which would be exclusively concerned with international faculty exchange. This was but one of several constructive interventions of Dr. Thompson which profoundly impressed the delegates.

Referring again to Dr. Li's paper, the university in Asia, therefore, seems to be expected to fulfill two major special functions: to disseminate and cause the diffusion of scientific knowledge and the techniques of the 20th century which have primarily developed in the West, on the one hand, and to infuse knowledge in its larger and more general aspects with the qualities that are inherently and historically Asian on the other. The one calls for the extension of the values of technology into our more traditional societies, and the other for the conservation of our identity throughout the vicissitudes of radical changes that technology would likely bring about.

The Future of Asian Universities

And now I come to the subject assigned to me for tonight's address: "The Future of Asian Universities." Any discussion of the prospects of Asian universities must take account of what I have just said. For it appears that while our peoples in Asia do desire the good life, they are not at the same time too willing to relinquish the values, the myths and legends, the images and the precepts that they have traditionally lived by. This was so cogently stated by Dr. Li during the discussion on the rule of law by Dean Cowen. This is why while our societies demand of their governments the benefits of the technology of the West, they are sometimes suspicious of the innovations, the new ideas, and the radical actions that are usually initiated in our universities. And to them modernization could indeed be regarded as Westernization for, as they see it, it simply means the process of introducing those skills and ideas that have developed in the West which, in turn, are generative of new institutions and a different philosophy of life.

The problem, it seems, is how our societies--conditioned by their ancient traditions and mores and so long used to living by ethical precepts rather than scientific formulae and principles and technology--could be made by our universities to assimilate changes, and when we speak of changes in this context we really mean their national development.

One fact is observable: in most of our universities the data of our traditions, the political history of our societies and our native literatures, are not as immediately available to the post-world war second generation of our youth as, let us say, materials on the history and civilization of the West. This presents a case which is beyond moral judgment, but which is relevant to the function of our universities. Unless the universities in Asia take an interest in reviving these materials to the consciousness of the youth, they would, in effect, be recreant to their mission of helping in the extension of human knowledge.

The Two Dimensions of Extension Work

To us in Asia, the extension of human knowledge could consist of two dimensions: one, the process of making new relationships to already known data, and the other, in bringing back to the recall of consciousness what has previously existed but has been forgotten.

Without neglecting the first, universities in Asia must be instrumental themselves in providing the international community a basis of understanding the culture of our continent; the realities that are essential to, and inherent in it--the facts and aspects that have been neglected in the recent decades of our century. The Asia Foundation has been helping in this task and we owe it a debt of gratitude for undertaking such an important mission. In the West there were indeed times when the mysteries of certain aspects of culture seemed to have been locked within the libraries and halls of certain universities--some institutions being known for particular areas of knowledge--for classical studies, for medieval history, or for Renaissance art.

I must say that one of the prevailing opinions among the distinguished representatives of institutions of higher learning in Asia is that the universities in Asia, besides being interpreters of the history and values and technology of the West, must also be specialists in their own context--providing the world the data and authority on the reality of Asia and being able to conceptualize for the human mind the fact of the integration of the history and culture of the region. And, just as in the mind of Arnold there was always a Europe--a human community distinct from America--the universities in Asia must realize for the consciousness of this and the next centuries the experience that, for history to be universal and complete, there must be present the culture and reality of Asia.

It may be proper here to note that the interest in Oriental cultures and civilization has also been evident in Western universities in the United States and in England. There have been recent institutes of Far Eastern Studies, Oriental Culture, Afro-Asian affairs in Western universities. This is inevitable, for the politics of the international community aspires towards universality and if the mission of the university is to disseminate knowledge, then it is but proper that Afro-Asian culture, history, and civilization be learned in a universal scale.

Future Economic, Political, and Population Development

But if we have to speak of the future of Asian universities, we must anticipate certain factors of the Asian reality: our future economic and political development and our population growth.

Economics and peoples cannot be regarded in isolation from politics. They make politics just as they are affected by it. In the sense that universities in Asia must somehow relate themselves to the expected development of our economies and population, they must also, therefore, consider the central question of politics: what sort of human organization must education prepare for; what sort of competence will that political order require of Asian citizens?

There could be no disagreement that our universities will always be on the side of freedom. I do not say that they should necessarily be anti-Communist or pro-democracy so-called. The ism is not significant; the concrete reality of rights is what matters--the uninhibited progress and development of awarenesses, intelligence, criticalness, and human possibilities. Whether these are to be realized in the current political systems, or in some other systems yet unthought of, it is the function--the mission, if you will--of the university to work towards it, for it, and to prepare the minds of men in relation to that actuality.

Economic progress always presupposes greater freedom; but on the part of institutions of learning it requires an increased capacity to meet its demands in order that society does not slacken in its growth, that culture does not suffer dislocation and stagnation as it prepares to yield to the logic of developments. The growth of population necessitates a corollary increase in the pace of economic production, and since society must forever assure equal opportunities for all education must equally be equipped to cope with the growth of populations.

The Progressive March of Democracy

More and more we have witnessed how the progress of democracy in the United States, in England, and in France has called for socialized programs. The opening of federal schools in the United States, the scholarship programs in Great Britain and France--all these are efforts to universalize education even at the college and university levels. In Asia, in virtually all of our societies, free universal education is assured on the grade and, in some instances, the high school level. The problem, therefore, is how to diffuse the intellectual excellence and competence of higher learning in our societies. There is no doubt, for instance, that the privileges under the G.I. Bill of Rights in the United States have made for a greater diffusion of learning in that country since the Second World War and it is not uncommon to learn that those who are now engaged in tasks of community leadership or in the responsibility of opinion-making have, in one way or another, served in the United States forces during the War.

In Asia, it seems that the problem is for its universities to increase their extension services. The University of the Philippines has undertaken a program of extending its instructional and curricular facilities to the far-flung communities of the country. But if Asia is to evolve an educational system as I have expressed in this conference--that of integrating its resources of excellence--how may this integrated program touch the larger population section of each country?

It is for the universities in Asia to help provide the vision for our societies that the democracy we are at present evolving must precisely work for that flexibility and greater freedom that can make these ideals possible. It is for the Asian university today to further deepen its impact upon our societies and influence its radical and revolutionary movement forward towards the shaping of a liberal consciousness and an affluence of freedom, testing the very fibers, as it were, of democracy with its ideas, just as democracy in the United States had been consistently tested by Lincoln's fight for racial equality, by Theodore Roosevelt's anti-trust policies against monopolies, by the concept of welfare economy of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, by the flexibility and dynamism of Kennedy's radical democratic commitment which even challenged the revolutionism of Socialism itself. The Asian university in the future will have to provide both the stability and source of changes, seeing to it that the balance of discipline and freedom does not degenerate into an experiment in coercion which can threaten the very life of institutions of higher learning.

Awesome and challenging as it may sound, the university in Asia cannot help being a source and promoter of freedom itself for only thus can it maintain its mission of teaching what mankind has learned, and still discover what people have yet to know.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

DR. S. L. CHIEN, president of National Taiwan University since 1951, received his undergraduate education in China and was granted the B. S. degree by National Tsinghua University in 1931. He then went to the United States to study, receiving the M. S. and Ph. D. degrees from the University of Illinois in 1932 and 1934, respectively.

Dr. Chien is one of China's most prominent chemists and educators. He is a member of the Academia Sinica, on whose Council he also serves; a member of the Atomic Energy Council, the executive committee of the National Council on Science Development, and the US Educational Foundation in the Republic of China; vice-chairman of the China Committee on Sino-American Science Cooperation and of the Board of Trustees of the China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, and chairman of the Board of Directors of the Chinese Chemical Society and the Chinese Association for the Advancement of Natural Sciences.

ZELMAN COWEN was born in Melbourne, Australia, October 7, 1919, and was educated at the University of Melbourne (B. A., LL. B., LL. M.) and Oxford University (B. C. L., M. A.). After wartime service in the Australian Navy, he became a Fellow of Oriel College at Oxford (1947-1950) and was in 1951 appointed professor of public law and dean of the Faculty of Law of the University of Melbourne. In January this year he became vice-chancellor of the University of New England, Armidale, New South Wales.

Mr. Cowen has been a visiting professor at Harvard Law School on two different occasions (1953-54 and 1963-64) as well as in other American universities including Chicago, Illinois, Washington (St. Louis), Utah, and the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy. He was a member of the International Advisory Committee on Legal Education in Ghana in 1959, advisor on legal education to the University of the West Indies in 1963-64, adviser on legal education to the University of Hong Kong, 1965 to date, and consultant in the establishment of the Law School in the University of Malaya (now the University of Singapore).

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

CHARLES JOHNSTON HITCH was born in Boonville, Missouri, on January 9, 1910, and received his education at Kemper Military School, the University of Arizona, Harvard University and Oxford University where he was a Rhodes scholar. He became a Fellow Praelector and tutor at Queen's College, Oxford, in 1935, a post he held until 1948. During World War II he became a staff economist for the Mission for Economic Affairs at the US Embassy in London and for the War Production Board in Washington, finishing his war service in the Office of Strategic Services. After the close of the war he re-entered government service, as chief of the Stabilization Controls Division of the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion (1945-46). In 1961 he was appointed Assistant Secretary of Defense (comptroller) during the Kennedy Administration and part of the Johnson Administration. In 1965 he was appointed Vice-President for Financial Affairs of the University of California and in 1966 Vice-President for Administration, his present post. He is a Trustee of The Asia Foundation.

DR. GRAYSON KIRK was born in Jeffersonville, Ohio, in 1903, and received his Ph. D. at the University of Wisconsin in 1930. A recognized authority on government and international relations, Dr. Kirk has taught at Lamar College in Beaumont, Texas, the University of Wisconsin, and Columbia University, where he was appointed Bryce professor of the history of international relations in 1959. Dr. Kirk has served as executive director of the Academy of Political Science and as research associate in the Yale Institute of International Affairs. In the postwar period at Columbia, he was appointed to a succession of important posts, and in 1949 he was principal assistant to Dwight D. Eisenhower, president of Columbia. Appointed vice-president and provost of the university in 1950, he assumed the presidency of Columbia on January 20, 1953, when Eisenhower was inaugurated President of the United States. Dr. Kirk is a trustee of several foundations and institutes, including The Asia Foundation, the Nutrition Foundation, the Institute of International Education, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the French Institute, and the Belgian American Education Foundation. More than 30 outstanding American and foreign universities and colleges have conferred honorary degrees on Dr. Kirk, and he has been decorated by a number of foreign governments.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

DR. CHOH-MING LI, vice-chancellor of The Chinese University of Hong Kong, was born in China and is a naturalized American citizen. He was educated at the University of Nanking and received his M. A. and Ph. D. degrees at the University of California at Berkeley.

Dr. Li's teaching career has taken him to Nankai, Southwest Associated, and National Central Universities in China as professor of economics (1937-43), and to the University of California at Berkeley as professor of business administration and director of the Center for Chinese Studies (1951-63). In 1964 he was appointed to his present position.

From 1945-47, Dr. Li was deputy director-general of the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (CNRRA) and in 1948 and 1949 was permanent delegate of the Republic of China to the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. In 1949 and 1950 he was chairman of the Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs of the National Government of China.

DR. KAZUO OKOCHI was born in Japan in 1905 and graduated from the Economics Department of the University of Tokyo in 1929. He remained in the university after his graduation, being successively lecturer, assistant professor, professor (1945), dean of Faculty of Economics, and finally president of the university.

A member of the Society for Social Policy, Dr. Okochi has produced many authoritative books in the field of social policy and the labor union movement and market. He is the current president of the National Universities Association and a member of the Central Education Deliberation Council.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

PROFESSOR ISHTIAQ HUSAIN QURESHI, vice-chancellor of the University of Karachi since 1961 and chairman since 1966 of the International World University Service at Geneva, was born November 20, 1903. He received his M. A. in history and M. A. in Persian from the University of Delhi in 1928 and 1929. In 1939 he received a Ph. D. in history from the University of Cambridge. At the University of Delhi, from 1928 to 1947, he was successively lecturer, reader, and professor of history, and dean of the Faculty of Arts.

A member of the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan from 1947 to 1954, Dr. Qureshi served in the Government of Pakistan as Deputy Minister in 1949, Minister of State in 1950, and Minister with Cabinet rank from 1951 to 1954. For the next five years he was visiting professor in the Department of History, Columbia University, New York. An office bearer in several academic societies and associations, Dr. Qureshi was awarded the *Sitara-i-Pakistan* in 1964.

KENNETH E. ROBINSON, vice-chancellor of the University of Hong Kong, was born in 1914 and educated at the Sir George Monoux Grammar School, London, Hertford College at Oxford University, and the London School of Economics. At Oxford he was named Beit Senior Scholar in 1936. That same year he entered the Home Civil Service of the United Kingdom (Administrative Class), where he served for twelve years. From 1948 to 1957 he was a Fellow of Nuffield College and Reader in Commonwealth Government at Oxford, after which he became director of the Institute of Commonwealth Studies and Professor of Commonwealth Affairs of the University of London, a post he held until 1965.

In 1954, Mr. Robinson taught at the School of Advanced International Studies of Johns Hopkins University, and in 1963 he taught at Duke University. He was Reid Lecturer at Acadia University in 1963 and a Governor of the London School of Economics from 1959 to 1965. From 1961 to 1965 he was editor of the *Journal of Commonwealth Political Studies.*

In Hong Kong, Mr. Robinson is a member of the Council of the Chinese University of Hong Kong, of the Special Committee on Higher Education, the Supervisory Board of the Hong Kong Urban Family Life Study, and the Councils of the Hong Kong Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society and the Hong Kong Management Association.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Born in Manila, January 14, 1899, CARLOS P. ROMULO has achieved an outstanding career as author, soldier, educator and diplomat. He received his B. A. degree from the University of the Philippines in 1918 and his M. A. degree from Columbia University in 1921. His early career as professor of English and head of the English Department at the University of the Philippines soon led him into newspaper work and the post of editor-in-chief of the TVT Publications in Manila in 1937. From 1937 to the outbreak of the Pacific War he was publisher of the DMHM newspapers in his home city. Author of twelve books, including his autobiography, I Walked with Heroes (1961), he was awarded the Pulitzer Prize in Journalism in 1942 for distinguished correspondence.

At the outbreak of the Pacific War, Dr. Romulo was aide-de-camp to General MacArthur in Bataan and Corregidor as a Major in the United States Army and accompanied the General to Australia. Through subsequent promotions he became Brigadier-General in 1944, in which capacity he was at General MacArthur's side in the invasion of Leyte and the recapture of Manila.

The distinguished decorations, honors, and awards which have come to General Romulo in the course of his career are listed on several pages of his official biographical statement. Notable are the United States Legion of Merit, the Philippine Order of Sikatuna and Golden Heart Presidential Award, and the Distinguished Service Award by Phi Beta Kappa. In addition, he has been decorated by eight foreign governments and the Vatican. Almost sixty colleges and universities throughout the world have recognized his scholarly and inspirational leadership by conferring on him honoris causa degrees in many fields. At present he is Secretary of Education of the Philippines and concurrently president of the University of the Philippines. He is also president of the Philippines Academy of Sciences and Humanities.

In the field of diplomacy and foreign affairs, General Romulo is currently Presidential Adviser on Foreign Affairs, capping a career in this field which began when he was asked to head the Philippine Mission to the United Nations in 1945, a post he occupied for nine years, during which he was President of the Fourth General Assembly (1949-50). He was President of the Security Council (1957), Secretary of Foreign Affairs in the Cabinet of President Elpidio Quirino (1950-52), and Ambassador to the United States from 1952-53 and 1955-62.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

JOHN EWART WALLACE STERLING, President of Stanford University since 1949, was born in Linwood, Ontario, Canada, on August 6, 1906. Prior to his inauguration in 1949 as the fifth president of Stanford, Dr. Sterling was director of the Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery of San Marino, California, and a member of the history faculty at the California Institute of Technology.

Dr. Sterling acquired his B. A. at the University of Toronto in 1927, and became a lecturer in history at Regina College, Regina, Saskatchewan. For the next two years, Dr. Sterling taught history at the University of Alberta and studied for his M. A. degree, which he received in 1930. He joined the research staff of the Hoover Institute and Library on War, Revolution and Peace in 1932 and assisted in the preparation of several of the Library's publications. Appointed instructor in history at Stanford University in 1935, he continued his studies, receiving his Ph. D. degree in history from Stanford in 1938.

After serving as professor of history at the California Institute of Technology, Dr. Sterling returned to Canada in 1939 on a Social Science Research Council fellowship to study the European immigrant situation. (Dr. Sterling is an authority on Canadian relations with the British Empire and the American republics, and has written several books on this subject.) In 1942 he was advanced to a full professorship at the California Institute of Technology, and two years later he was elected chairman of the faculty. The next year he was appointed Edward S. Harkness professor of history and government.

Fifteen leading universities and colleges in Canada, Europe, and the United States have conferred honorary degrees on Dr. Sterling and he has been decorated by four foreign governments. He is a Trustee of The Asia Foundation.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

HAYDN WILLIAMS, president of The Asia Foundation, has had an extensive career in international affairs, including academic, business and government positions. A graduate of the University of California, Dr. Williams earned his Ph. D. at the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy where he was Associate Dean and Professor of International Relations from 1952 to 1957. He has also been a member of the faculty at the University of Washington where he directed an undergraduate honors program from 1962 through 1963.

He has been a consultant to Pan American Airways and the Air Transport Association as well as to the U. S. Departments of State and Defense. He was Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for five years during the Eisenhower and Kennedy Administrations.

In addition to his responsibilities as president of The Asia Foundation, Dr. Williams has been called to take part in a wide range of civic affairs. He is a member of the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO, an overseer of the Fletcher School, a trustee of the World Affairs Council of Northern California, and a member of the University of California Alumni Council. In 1966, Seoul National University conferred on Dr. Williams the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

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These Proceedings were typed by Marilyn Grimstad and Lottie Adamek and multilithed by Sanders Murray, all at the headquarters of The Asia Foundation in San Francisco. Arthur W. Lane coordinated the production and prepared the photo section. Printing of the cover was done by the Calmar Printing Company, and the collating and binding by the A. L. Lemos Company, both in San Francisco.